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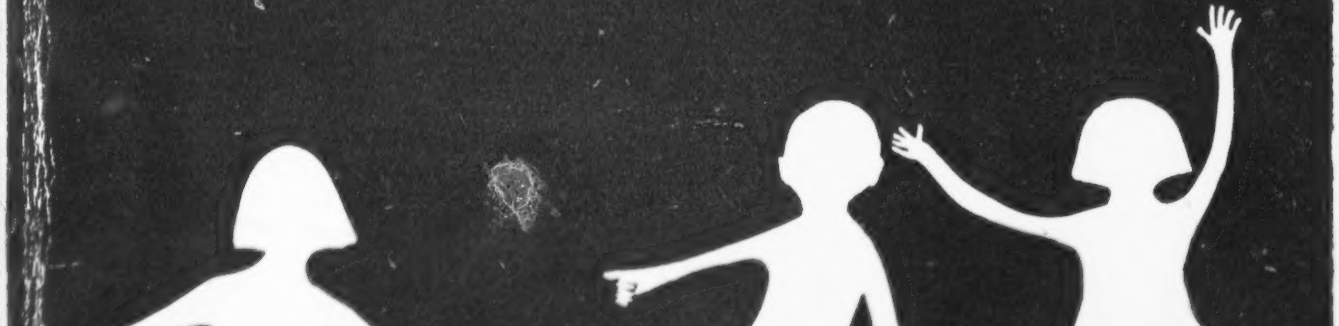
Guidance in the Elementary School:

Theory, Research, and Practice

Eugene D. Koplitz



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Guidance in the Elementary School:
Theory, Research, and Practice

A Book of Selected Readings

Edited by

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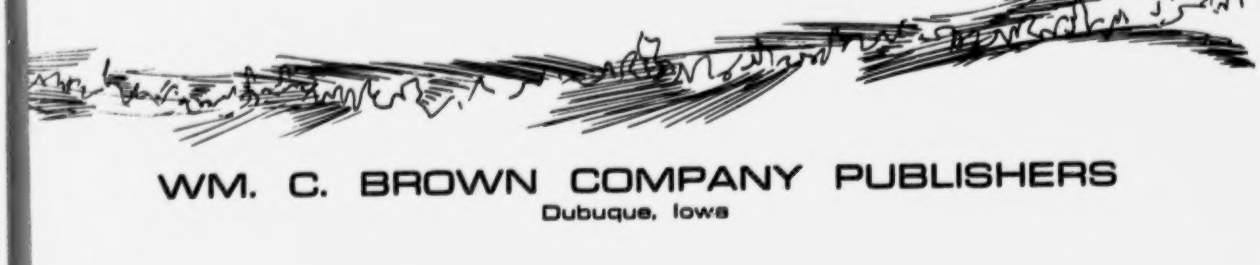

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Guidance in the Elementary School:

Theory, Research, and Practice

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preface

This book represents an effort to bring together articles written during the 1960s which focus specifically on theory, research and practice of guidance in the elementary school. The growing interest in and the preparation of elementary school counselors precipitated this project of bringing together the best writings of those persons who have dealt with problems related to guidance of young children.

This volume is intended primarily for use in the preparation of elementary school counselors, teachers and administrators. To better understand the need, methods and procedures of elementary school guidance the selected writings in this book will aid the student in his pursuit of excellence and success in elementary education. This book could serve as a basic text or supplement to an introductory course in elementary school guidance or as a basis for departure in an advanced seminar in counselor education.

Persons teaching basic professional courses in elementary education could also utilize these readings to supplement and enrich their classes. By incorporating the most recent thoughts on the subject of guidance in elementary schools, students will gain important knowledge and insight into the fast-moving trends in this field. It should help them in carrying out their guidance role in the classroom. This book is most appropriate for off-campus college classes and in-service training courses for elementary and secondary school personnel. The ideas expressed in the articles should help experienced educators appreciate and understand more fully how guidance can aid in the development of the child's potentialities. The specific theories advanced, the research findings reported and the practices cited should stimulate questions and provocative discussions.

The book is organized into ten parts. In Part I, *Conceptualized Approaches to Guidance in Elementary Schools,* focus is placed on various theoretical and philosophical positions held by various writers regarding guidance in the elementary school. In Part II, *Guidance Roles and Functions of the Counselor and Other School Personnel in Elementary Schools,* discussions are presented concerning the important responsibilities of the various professional personnel who work in elementary schools. In Part III, *Exploration of Occupations at the Elementary School Level,* selected articles deal with attitudes and concepts of young children toward various jobs and occupations. Also included are reports dealing with the ways and means for introducing elementary school age children to the world of work. Part IV, *Guidance for Social, Personal and Emotional Development of Elementary School Children,* investigates the social forces and environments which affect the behavior of young children. Attention is also given to school performance, personality and attitudinal variables. Part V, *Counseling Elementary School Children,* is devoted to two research studies involving different approaches to counseling the young child. Part VI, *Counseling Parents of Elementary School Children,* deals with counseling procedures useful when working with parents of troubled and handicapped children. The ways to improve home-school relationships are also discussed. Part VII, *Elementary School Guidance Programs in Practice,* cites programs presently carried out in two sections of the country: California and Illinois. In Part VIII, *Research Related to Guidance in Elementary Schools,* findings are reported which have important implications for guidance and counseling at this age level. Part IX, *Preparation Programs for Elementary School Counselors,* presents certain positions held regarding graduate programs in counselor education for elementary schools. In Part X, *Present Status and Future Outlook,* the present situation is described and the plans and hopes for the years ahead are discussed.

For each article, acknowledgment is made to the author(s) and publisher. The editor wishes to express his very sincere appreciation for the privilege of reprinting these recent and significant papers which deal with the many facets of guidance in the elementary school. Gratitude is being expressed in a concrete manner by contributing a portion of the royalties to the American Personnel and Guidance Association to be used for professional purposes, and to an outstanding graduate student at Colorado State College who will pursue research in the field of elementary school guidance.

Eugene D. Koplitz

contents

PART I Conceptualized Approaches to Guidance in Elementary Schools

The Start of a Continuous Program Is Guidance in Elementary Schools 5
George E. Hill

National-level Projection for Elementary School Guidance 12
Harold F. Cottingham

The Elementary School Teacher Views Guidance 17
Duane Brown, Rolla F. Pruett

A Teacher Looks at Guidance 30
Dorothy Watson

For Elementary Schools: A Human Development Specialist? 36
Richard Hill Byrne

An Approach for the Elementary School Counselor: Consultant or Counselor? 40
G. Roy Mayer

An Outline for Elementary School Guidance: The Need, Philosophy, and Program 45
Frederick B. Gannon, Rodney L. Peterson

Physical Facilities for Elementary School Counseling 49
Richard C. Nelson

Why Guidance in Elementary Schools 54
E. Gordon Poling

PART II Guidance Roles and Functions of the Counselor and other School Personnel in Elementary Schools

The Counselor's Role in Elementary School Guidance 64
Harold F. Cottingham

Guidance in the Elementary Schools 69
George E. Hill

The Elementary Counselor as Perceived by Elementary Principals 76
William P. McDougall, Henry M. Reitan

The Principal's Responsibilities in the Guidance Program 86
Robert T. DeVries

Elementary School Guidance: the Consultant 91
Louise Omwake Eckerson, Hyrum M. Smith

PART III Exploration of Occupations at the Elementary School Level

Occupational Information in the Elementary School 103
Dugald S. Arbuckle

Occupational Information for Groups of Elementary School Children 114
Goldie Ruth Kaback

The World of Work Through Elementary Readers 121
W. Wesley Tennyson, Lawrence P. Monnens

Automation, Work, and Leisure: Implications for Elementary Education 126
Goldie Ruth Kaback

Attitudes Toward the World of Work in Elementary Schools 132
John A. Wellington, Nan Olechowski

Occupational Choice of Twelve-Year-Olds 136
Donald A. Davis, Nellie Hagan, Judie Strouf

Children's Conceptions of Occupational Prestige 139
Barbara Gunn

Children's Rankings of Occupational Prestige 148
Dale D. Simmons

PART IV Guidance for Social, Personal and Emotional Development of Elementary School Children

Social Forces and Guidance in the Elementary School 160
Walter M. Lifton

Early Social Environment and School Adaptation 165
Martin Deutsch

An Exploratory Study of the Development of Social Sensitivity in Elementary School Children 175
Vincent R. Rogers, Elizabeth Long

Inadequate Social Acceptance and Disruptive Classroom Behavior ... 181
Neil M. Lorber
Attitudes of Children from Deprived Environment Toward Achievement-related Concepts ... 185
Judith W. Greenberg, Joan M. Gerver, Jeanne Chall, Helen M. Davidson
The Relationship Between Personality and Achievement Variables in the Elementary School ... 196
Arnold H. Matlin, Francis A. Mendelsohn
The Relationship Between "Causal" Orientation, Anxiety, and Insecurity in Elementary School Children ... 199
Rolf E. Muuss
Factors Affecting the Development of Cooperation in Children ... 211
Alex F. Perrodin

PART V Counseling Elementary School Children

Counseling with Elementary School Children: an Experimental Study ... 222
Gerald D. Kranzler, George Roy Mayer, Calvin O. Dyer, Paul F. Munger
Elementary School Counseling with Unstructured Play Media ... 230
Richard C. Nelson

PART VI Counseling Parents of Elementary School Children

Working with Parents of Troubled Children ... 238
Edward Landy
Counseling the Parents of the Severely Handicapped ... 243
John Thurston
Depth Consultation with Parents ... 248
Eleanor Cartwright Crocker

PART VII Elementary School Guidance Programs in Practice

Elementary School Counselors in California ... 262
William H. McCreary, Gerald Miller
Vocational Guidance in the Elementary School: Community-centered Program Spurs Student Interest ... 271
Allen P. Zak

Chicago's Vocational Guidance and Education Centers: A Program for Over-age Elementary School Youth 277
Neal F. Simeon

PART VIII Research Related to Guidance in Elementary Schools

Elementary School Attendance as an Index of Guidance Needs 289
Gerald Kowitz, Norma Giess Kowitz
Types of Problems Referred to a Central Guidance Agency at Different Grade Levels 296
Joseph P. Rice, Jr.
Some Concomitants of Underachievement at the Elementary School Level 302
John J. Teigland, Ronald C. Winkler, Paul F. Munger, Gerald D. Kranzler
An Analysis of School Subject Preferences of Elementary School Children of the Middle Class: Another Look 310
James Inskeep, Monroe Rowland

PART IX Preparation Programs for Elementary School Counselors

Preparation Programs in Elementary School Guidance – a Status Study 320
Dale Nitzschke
An Approach to Practicum for Elementary School Counselors 328
Bill Raines
Guidance Draws on Many Fields 333
Samuel Kavruck

PART X Present Status and Future Outlook

Guidance in the Elementary School – a Status Review 338
Harold F. Cottingham
Elementary-school Guidance: Its Present Status 351
Anthony C. Riccio
Elementary Guidance in the Decades Ahead: a Positive Function Rather than a Corrective Force 355
Anna R. Meeks
Trends in Elementary School Guidance 361
Robert O. Stripling
Index 369

FOR ALL EDUCATORS WHO PURSUE EXCELLENCE IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Guidance in the Elementary School:
Theory, Research, and Practice

PART 1

Conceptualized Approaches to Guidance in Elementary Schools

In Part I, theory and philosophy of guidance in the elementary school are discussed by a number of leaders in the field of education and psychology. The conceptualized approaches advanced by the writers are clearly stated and should provide the reader with a foundation for developing insight into the many factors which undergird the roles and functions of guidance workers.

Dr. George E. Hill, Distinguished Professor of Education at Ohio University, states his position in his article entitled, "The Start of a Continuous Program Is Guidance in the Elementary Schools." He writes: "The idea of guidance in our schools is as old as the concern of a sensitive teacher for his pupils. The practice of guidance in our schools is as old as the efforts of this teacher to help his students grow and develop to their fullest potential. Guidance services in secondary schools and colleges came into being to meet the needs of the individual student and the individual teacher. Guidance services in our elementary schools are developing and expanding rapidly for exactly the same reason."

Professor Hill lists four basic needs which have come to be widely accepted as the essential basis for organized guidance in the schools. He then raises two fundamental questions: (1) Do we need guidance in elementary schools? (2) Are elementary schools developing guidance programs? Answers to these questions are succinctly stated and well-documented. Goals and procedures for guidance programs are carefully outlined and discussed. He concludes his paper by discussing what he feels are important functions of the elementary school counselor and then enumerates five basic principles of elementary school guidance.

Dr. Harold F. Cottingham, Professor of Education at Florida State University and past president of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, offers a number of proposals for furthering the development of elementary school guidance. He suggests a national-level plan to determine the nature and characteristics of elementary school guidance and offers organizational plans and leadership responsibilities for future action. In his paper he discusses functional operations both in the area of research and experimentation, as well as in theory construction. The field of counselor education will continue to grow and develop when clarification of the basic dimensions and characteristics of guidance at this particular level are made.

How the elementary school teacher views guidance in the school setting cannot be overlooked when consideration is being made for the creation and development of a guidance program. Duane Brown and Rolla F. Pruett conducted an investigation to determine the elementary school teacher's attitudes regarding the need for a guidance program and to determine who should perform the various guidance functions. Results from this investigation should be carefully studied. The findings have important implications for all who become involved in establishing and carrying out a program of guidance in the elementary school.

As a teacher, Dorothy Watson recalls vividly the case of Laura and states that Laura was one of her most painful memories. The necessary resources for helping this child were lacking at the time assistance was needed. All who teach and have taught young children can recall cases similar to Laura and probably felt a need to turn to someone else for help. In her article, "A Teacher Looks at Guidance," observations are made of the changing attitude toward guidance and the implications of the guidance approach in elementary schools. She suggests the possibilities of a guidance team approach and contends that the combined efforts of skilled creative and cooperative personnel in a school and a school system can be a powerful force. The importance of the teacher's contribution to guidance and research is also discussed.

G. Roy Mayer has developed the position that counseling can and should be the central role of the elementary school counselor. He describes the counselors' functions as distinct from that of other school personnel such as the administrator, teacher, social worker, psychometrist and school psychologist. He says the counselor is a distinct member of a team and describes his role in detail.

A human development specialist's point of view is suggested for the elementary schools by Richard Hill Byrne of the University of Maryland. This child development consultant concept was investigated by Dr. Byrne. Final conclusions about this approach to guidance in the elementary school cannot be made until full analysis of the total pool of research data is completed by the author. The analysis was conducted during the summer of 1967. Dr. Byrne stated that a cross-professional worker can be trained, and he can function in schools; however, the general effect on pupils cannot be stated as yet, nor the differential effect in contrast to traditional procedures for deploying elementary school service personnel. More complete reports on the project are yet to be made available.

The need for, and the philosophy and program of elementary school guidance are outlined by Frederick B. Cannon and Rodney L. Peterson. They contend that guidance in the elementary school is not merely a watered-down version of a good secondary program. They state their position and summarize by saying ". . . the elementary school counselor is an additional member of the team composed of parents and school personnel whose basic concern is helping the child obtain the most effective possible academic, personal and social growth."

Dr. Richard C. Nelson, Assistant Professor at Purdue University, contends that the physical setting within which the elementary counselor performs his duties is in need of some attention in literature. He lists four basic assumptions and then focuses on three different physical settings in which counseling and guidance are carried on. Three diagrams illustrate plans for an elementary school counseling center.

The "why" behind guidance in the elementary school is discussed by E. Gordon Poling. It is appropriate that this paper appear as the final article for Part I because it summarizes the concern and need for guidance services at this level of formal education. Professor Poling states a final word of caution to the elementary school counselors in his concluding remarks:

> The counselor at the elementary school attempts to make a contribution to the over-all educational program as he works with students, teachers, administrators and parents. His greatest strength comes from his education and experience and his concern for people. His greatest resource is the elementary teacher who is equally concerned about the children in her self-contained classroom. In working with the student as he gains self and environmental understanding, and in working with the teacher in developing an increasing awareness of individual concerns and methods of alleviating these, his modus operandi should be guided by his

belief in people and their willingness and desire to improve. Paraphrasing a statement made by an authority in the field of counseling, perhaps the elementary counselor can say—and can assist others in coming to feel—that it is of enormous value when one can permit himself to understand another person and can be acceptant of himself.[1]

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR—COUNSELING A FIRST-GRADE BOY

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[1] Carl E. Rogers, "Counseling Points of View," *Modern School Practices Series*, No. 3 (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1964), pp. 14 and 16.

THE START OF A CONTINUOUS PROGRAM IS GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

GEORGE E. HILL

The idea of guidance in our schools is as old as the concern of a sensitive teacher for his pupils. The practice of guidance in our schools is as old as the efforts of this teacher to help his students grow and develop to their fullest potential. Guidance services in secondary schools and colleges came into being to meet the needs of the individual – both the individual student and the individual teacher. Guidance services in our elementary schools are developing and expanding rapidly for exactly the same reason.

Guidance and the Needs of Children

As our understanding of children has developed and as we have come to see more clearly the implications of this understanding for educational practice, four basic needs have come to be widely accepted as the essential basis for organized guidance in schools:

(1) Boys and girls need to mature in their understanding, their acceptance, and their sense of responsibility regarding themselves. Without these three conditions no person can be his best nor can he live his best with his fellows. Much of this understanding, acceptance, and responsibility comes from the proper arrangement of relations with others.

(2) Boys and girls live in a complex world in which the fullest possible education is imperative if they are to find their most productive place in the world of work. Thus they need to grow in their understanding of education and of work through an increasingly mature interaction with their environment.

(3) Boys and girls are faced with the constant necessity of choice-making and problem-solving. Thus it is necessary for them to mature in learning how to make wise choices, how to plan their lives sensibly, and how to solve their problems in a rational manner and also with a high sense of moral values.

(4) Boys and girls live in a complex of social settings – the home, the neighborhood, the school, the community, the world. Beginning with the simpler adjustments of home life, they day by day expand the scope

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of their adjustments. Thus they face the need for developing those values, behaviors, and insights which enable them to live with a minimum of fruitless friction and a maximum of maturity in social attitudes and skills.

The guidance services of schools have evolved in recognition of the need to direct the total impact of the school toward helping all young people to develop along the lines that are suggested by these four statements.

Do We Need Guidance in Elementary Schools?

The ideal of the dignity, the worth, and the integrity of each person is basic to all aspects of our free school system. Fostering this ideal is not just something that it is nice for educators to do; it is an imperative condition for the maintenance of our freedoms and our way of life. Thus, helping children be their best is a foundation of all good elementary education.

The development of guidance services and the appointment of staff counselors in elementary schools during the past decade reflects the impact of such developments as these:

(1) The universal acceptance of the educational implications of what has been learned about child development. For example, if a seventh grader is to want to make the best of his abilities, he must start to learn to want this during the earliest phases of his educational experience. If a third grader is to develop wholesome attitudes toward others, the processes of socialization must start in the cradle. Education is a slow, insistent push, not a matter of fits and starts. Thus all education has to be viewed in terms of the full sweep of the educational effort, including the schools' aids to the fulfillment of the four needs with which this statement opened.

(2) The education of the whole child has become a reality in terms of the common effort of most teachers in most schools. Once regarded as a "progressive" slogan, this is now an accepted axiom. But not only must the teacher educate the whole child, she must also help him meet and master an explosion of knowledge such as the world has never before seen. Thus the professional teacher sees that the task of full child development in her classroom requires aids for which teachers once felt no need. The "self-contained classroom" is no longer equated by the teacher with the "self-sufficient teacher." It is the best prepared, most competent teachers who call upon the special service personnel for consultation and help in meeting the needs of particular individual children and in planning richer learning experiences for all children.

(3) The increasing complexity of choices – and thus of decision-making – and the growing awareness that basic attitudes and choices begin early in the child's life have sensitized many teachers and administrators to the need for a critical evaluation of childhood education as to the impact of these factors upon the child's growth in life-planning and choice-making. For example, although the jokes about deciding in kindergarten whether to go to college are overdone, there is an undertone of reality in them.

(4) Evidence has piled up from many sources that the forerunners of the high school dropout problem – and of the problems of underachievement and of the waste of the talents of girls and of children from minority groups – lie in the child's experiences from babyhood to adolescence. Thus these problems cannot be adequately dealt with if consideration of them is delayed until junior high school. Low aspirations, antisocial attitudes, low self-estimations are attitudes which begin their formation early in life. If the school is to do its best, its efforts must begin early and must be persistently developmental.

(5) There is increased awareness of the impact of home life, parental attitudes, and community influences in the determination of the child's sense of self, his sense of his worth or lack of worth, his aspirations, his values, his achievements. Thus the school, never an island of isolation, has moved even further into the child's extra-school life. At the same time, as parents have themselves become better educated and more responsible, the school has developed more fully its program for the involvement of parents in the education of their children.

These five developments have formed the basis for the introduction of organized guidance services in the elementary schools.

Are Elementary Schools Developing Guidance Programs?

Two states may be used as examples. In the fall of 1962 the officials of twenty-six Ohio school districts reported that they had full-time counselors on their elementary school staffs. Another 51 districts reported that guidance workers served both their elementary and their secondary schools. This does not mean that these 77 districts were the only ones which had guidance in their elementary schools. But it suggests that a good many schools have already provided professional assistance to their teachers in the form of guidance services for their students. California (3, 6) has employed considerable numbers of elementary school counselors for over a decade.

Preparation programs at the graduate level for guidance workers in elementary schools are known to be in operation in more than fifty universities.(5) N.D.E.A. doctoral fellows have been assigned to one university in the federally supported program for graduate education in this field.

In the spring of last year, the U. S. Office of Education's publication *School Life* ran three excellent articles by Eckerson and Smith on elementary school guidance, now available in a brochure.(1) In 1949 there was not a single professional book devoted to elementary school guidance, whereas today there are more than a dozen. The periodicals abound with articles on various aspects of this field.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association, with a foundation grant, has recently started a national study of the subject. Nearly ten years ago the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers (now the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision) did a national survey.(9)

Goals and Procedures

The elementary school principal and his staff need to attempt to think through this matter of guidance services. The question of goals is basic. As it is now developing in elementary schools,* guidance is emphasizing the following goals:

(1) *To enhance and make more functional our understanding of all children and to enhance and make more functional all children's understanding of themselves.* In many schools, teachers have the services of special service workers in testing, counseling, test interpretation, and the use of non-testing devices for studying children, and in working with parents in the exchange of information about the children. In other schools it is still assumed that this is the responsibility of the teacher and that she does not need the help of anyone else, except that in the more serious cases she may refer to the school psychologist. It is clear to many that such understandings as these, to be functional, must be tested by the child through self-study, discussion, observation, and study of the world of choices in a personalized setting. In short, the child comes to self-understanding by looking at himself and as a consequence of individual and group experiences which help him to see himself in his environment with its demands and as others see him.

(2) *To help children with their goal-seeking, choice-making, and life-planning,* all good teachers work day by day with their class groups.

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*For a very good example of how one school staff organized its elementary school guidance program, see item 2 of the bibliography.

Many teachers are finding the building counselor a ready aid in several aspects of these matters:

a. counseling the individual child who needs more help with choice problems, as he sees the need. The counselor can become an aid to both the child and the teacher by his listening, reflecting, encouraging, and helping with planning and decision-making.
b. working with the teacher to plan, and sometimes to conduct, discussions of such matters as "Why do we go to school?", "What do the standard tests tell us?", "Why do our daddies have the jobs they do?", and the like.
c. helping the teachers to find resource materials for units on the world of work and on our ultimate place in that world.
d. working with parents, individually and in groups, to coordinate the school's efforts with those of the home. This includes counseling with parents when their aspirations and the developing goals of the child seem out of harmony.

(3) *To help children develop socially,* to mature in their relations with others, requires all the skill, patience, and ingenuity that any teacher can command. To integrate this development effectively with a productive program for learning the usual school subjects demands that the teacher effect a proper integration of many phases of the child's experiences. At times children whose personal and social adjustment has become entangled or frustrated will need special attention. It is then that teachers especially value the aid of a ready referral source, preferably someone on the staff of their building. This person has time assigned to study the child, talk with him, talk with his parents, and do the many things that help with the processes of individual adjustment. A counselor on the building staff can be an invaluable help with such problems.

This phase of childhood education is, however, best conceived of as an ongoing developmental program which provides much well-planned opportunity for learning, and not just as a remedial or adjustment effort. Here the classroom teacher may also value the assistance of a skilled counselor. Well prepared in small group processes, this counselor helps the teacher plan, and in some instances may conduct, group discussion regarding interpersonal relations and social development. Both as a counselor and as a consultant, the elementary school counselor can thus aid with the teacher's job of social education.

(4) *To help children begin early to grow in their understanding of the role of education in their lives and to help them mature in their own life-planning,* the teacher must give systematic attention in the elemen-

tary school to the place of education and of employment in one's life. Research now shows clearly that any effort at vocational guidance which begins in the secondary schools must be built, if it is to be effective, upon a sound foundation of the following:

a. Systematic orientation to the world of work through instruction, individual study, observation, and exploratory experiences. The elementary school counselor is trained to help teachers develop units on education and vocations and to find materials and resources which will enable the teachers in a school to build a unified approach to the study of these phases of life-planning.
b. Enrichment of experiences regarding education and employment through field trips, interviews with workers, viewing of films and other audio-visual materials, and the like. The counselor and teacher can work together in planning such experiences.
c. A program of parental involvement in the processes of life-planning which enables the child to explore and to begin his own planning in an atmosphere of support and understanding. The counselor can be of material aid in parent conferences (group and individuals), in presentations to P.T.A.'s and other groups regarding the child's problems of life-planning, in individual counseling with children, and in many other ways of bringing about a proper integration of the adult forces playing upon a child as he matures in his own planning.
d. Much attention in the instructional program of the elementary school to experiences which help children develop accepting and respecting attitudes toward the work of all people. Such attitudes are essential to good employment relations in adulthood and are a significant part of our personal values in life. Teacher and counselor will plan such activities as suggested in *a* to *c* above with proper regard for values and attitudes.

The Counselor in Elementary Schools

Mention has been made in this paper of a guidance worker in the elementary school, the elementary school counselor. What are the functions of this person on the school staff?

(1) The elementary school counselor is a member of the building staff. Thus she is a team member, readily available for close, intimate work with the teachers, the principal, the other special service workers, and the supervisors.

(2) She is an educator, prepared and experienced in teaching in the grades. She knows the work of the teacher, although she will not claim to be an expert in all aspects of all levels of elementary education.

(3) She will probably serve a pupil population of 400 to 600, although such figures are strictly rule-of-thumb. It is probably much better to consider total staff for a complete pupil population than to single out staff members. For example, we may accept the idea of 50 professional staff members for each 1000 children. This might be 40 teachers and 10 others (principal, assistant, supervisor, special teachers, counselors, nurses, school psychologists, and the like). The point is that we must recognize the need for well-rounded and adequate staff services.

(4) This counselor is appointed to a school only after thorough study by the staff of its needs and at least a tentative definition of functions by the staff. Acceptance by the staff is imperative. Organizational patterns differ too much to permit a set pattern for this process. But where the work of the counselor in the elementary school is most effective today is in the schools where staff were involved in the process of planning the program and in selecting the counselor.

(5) This counselor will be committed to the following basic principles of elementary school guidance:

a. Chief concern is the fullest possible development of all children. Each child is a person to be respected, accepted, and encouraged.
b. The guidance effort of the elementary school is an integral phase of the total instructional program. Thus all things done in the name of "guidance" must be viewed in terms of their total educational impact.
c. The teacher is the staff member primarily responsible for a given child or a given group of children. The planning and conduct of her program of instruction is the chief concern. Guidance thus supplements and enriches good teaching.
d. The counselor is a building team member, a consultant to teachers and other staff, a counselor to children and parents, a resource person for aid and referral. Her primary role is that of consultant, but a significant secondary role is that of counselor to individuals.
e. A good educational program, at any age level, helps each child come to a better understanding of himself, learn how to see and understand the world about him and his place in it, learn how to choose wisely and solve his own problems, and learn how to become a more mature person in his relations with other people. Good guidance is based upon the recognition of the individuality

of each child, the acceptance of each child, and the maximum effort to assist each child to become his best.

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NATIONAL-LEVEL PROJECTION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Harold F. Cottingham

As with other phases of education it would seem that we have now reached a point in elementary school guidance where we need not only to review our present position but to develop a plan of action leading to an improved state of affairs in general. This paper has as its purpose the presentation of a series of steps that might be appropriate for further-

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ing guidance in elementary school as a phase of the total guidance movement.

Assumptions

As a basis for suggesting a subsequent plan of action, it would seem feasible to mention several basic assumptions on which further action is predicated. Certainly the growth of the guidance movement to date demands action on this aspect of guidance work. Over a number of years, areas of guidance from junior high school to college have been stressed through research and experimentation. Yet only recently have we been aware of the need to improve and clarify the nature of guidance in the elementary school as a foundation for guidance at subsequent levels. The second assumption related to this first point recognizes the fact that at the moment because of the involvement of a number of groups as well as many individuals, considerable confusion exists with respect to various aspects of guidance in the elementary school. There appears to be confusion not only with respect to the basic theory underlying guidance at this level but also with respect to the most acceptable practices to be followed by elementary educators, counselors, or teachers. Such topics as the qualifications for elementary guidance work, the role and function of the elementary counselor, the training desired for elementary guidance workers, and the most effective organizational pattern of elementary guidance activities are a few areas of disagreement among those concerned with guidance at this particular level. Certainly the lack of clarity on some of these issues, if left unresolved much longer, will make future progress on any united basis much more difficult.

Other assumptions related to further action include the obvious fact that a variety of professional groups are also involved in the clarification of the nature and characteristics of guidance in the elementary school. Such groups as elementary principals, school social workers, school psychologists, classroom teachers, and elementary supervisors — to name only a few — have deep concern for the direction to be taken by guidance people who wish to strengthen and clarify the nature of guidance in the elementary school. A related assumption obviously stemming from the involvement of many educational groups is that future action must be developed on a cooperative basis. Not only must the various groups of educators cited above be involved in further plans and action, but representatives of the various scholarly disciplines involved in the development of basic theory must be included. Finally, it would seem only logical that as the elementary guidance movement is the subject of further study, both research and theory formulation must be considered.

This dual base for further action would help to insure that both effective practices and a firm philosophical and psychological foundation were developed concomitantly.

Implementation

The organizational pattern of any national effort to clarify the status and character of guidance in elementary school must recognize the realities involved. One reality is that the organizational structure must be representative of a variety of educational groups, a number of related disciplines, and various educational levels. With this type of national-level action, leadership becomes a key factor in that sponsoring groups or organizations must be solicited and encouraged to support such a proposal. One possibility is the formation of a national commission on elementary school guidance; this might be somewhat like the present Inter-professional Commission on Pupil Personnel Services project which has obtained foundation support. Another possibility is to invite the American Personnel and Guidance Association either independently or in conjunction with other professional organizations to sponsor study groups designed to attack problems involving the clarification of elementary school guidance. Still another approach could include the leadership of the U. S. Office of Education designating a task force, through the use of regular staff members and consultants, to study the problem over a two- or three-year period. A fourth plan might involve the participation of elementary school principals and elementary supervisors, along with professional organizations in guidance, to form a special interprofessional committee to examine this important question through a series of carefully planned meetings.

Moving from the organizational aspect of the problem to the purpose of any national effort the potential contribution of the organized study becomes clear. A number of functional operations would seem to be of concern for any such special study groups as are being considered here. One of the major phases of activity might be described as research and experimentation or demonstration. This work could include several specific yet obvious endeavors. In terms of priority, one of the first assignments of a subgroup of the national body should be to review the literature to date both in terms of elementary guidance practices and theoretical discussions and to summarize as well as analyze these findings. Based on this literature review, a subgroup should propose and conduct further studies on needs for guidance services in the elementary school. One of the initial efforts here might be to obtain evidence of local research or studies that have not appeared in print to date. Many of these studies could be pointed toward the identification of specific needs from the vantage point of teachers, pupils, administrators, or the community. Each of these consumer groups of guidance services has a different interest in the ultimate benefits to be received from elementary guidance activities.

A simultaneous research effort should examine current practices in elementary school guidance. Action research programs or descriptive studies might include such questions as the most commonly found types of organizational patterns and responsibilities, the qualifications and characteristics of staff members assigned to guidance duties, and the specific functions provided by guidance personnel to teachers, pupils, administrators, and the community. In addition, a study could delve into the inter-disciplinary and inter-organizational relationships that characterize the organizational patterns found in various school settings. Finally, and of considerable importance, are the philosophical foundations undergirding the present practices now being carried out in various elementary schools. These may be difficult to discern, yet some sort of educational viewpoint or philosophy, whether verbalized or not, pervades this type of educational endeavor.

In addition to the action or descriptive research described above, another feature of a national study on elementary guidance should be devoted to a series of experimental studies, concurrently related to the philosophical hypotheses being developed as a foundation for elementary school guidance practices. These experimental research efforts might examine both pupil assessment programs where behavior patterns are identified and classified, and pupil assistance plans where remedial and corrective measures are brought to bear on the behavior problems that have been identified. Further experimental studies should examine model program designs in terms of the total school effort to develop elementary school guidance functions. These model program studies could look at different combinations of the variable elements in approaches to organizing the school for elementary guidance. Specifically, such factors as type of staff, size of staff, physical facilities, philosophical approach, socio-economic factors, and organizational plans could be studied in light of various program arrangements. Further experimental research could deal with the question of the variable role and function of the personnel working with elementary school children, such as the school counselor, the school psychologist, and the school social worker. The question of proper use of these resource facilities in conjunction with one another is a vital one at the moment. Still other experimental studies could deal with the varying role of the teacher with respect to providing guidance both through instruction and beyond instruction. Finally, experimental studies dealing with group process versus individual procedures should be a part of the total experimental studies being considered.

The second large phase of the proposal being presented centers on the development and construction of theoretical bases on which elementary school guidance practices should rest. Although these may be carried on concurrently with a study of elementary guidance practices, as outlined above, it is quite possible that to some degree the study of theoretical bases might precede the inauguration of certain experimental studies. Regardless of the order of investigation, one of the primary activities in the examination of the theoretical bases for elementary school guidance should be the review of the various literature sources, association reports, and published materials to date. These sources should be studied carefully for not only their philosophical origins but for points of disagreement and elements of commonalty that might characterize the literature to date. Following this step and perhaps deriving directly from it, the development of philosophical pre-suppositions which presumably would be compatible with those now being considered for the total guidance movement might be suggested. Naturally, it can be assumed that elementary school guidance will rest on the same foundation as guidance at other school levels. It is recognized, however, that the entire guidance movement is currently in the process of clarifying its own philosophical bases.

One important characteristic of any examination of theoretical roots for elementary school guidance should be an attempt to clarify the basic dimensions and characteristics of guidance at this particular level. More specifically, the purposes or goals toward which elementary school guidance is pointing should be explicitly stated, preferably in terms of human behavior outcomes. Furthermore, the essential functions or means to these ends should be carefully set forth. Finally, those responsible for the development of a theoretical foundation for elementary school guidance should develop and suggest organizational conditions along with desirable facilities and local resources necessary to provide functions compatible with sound theory.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER VIEWS GUIDANCE

DUANE BROWN, ROLLA F. PRUETT

Extension of Title V of the National Defense Education Act to the elementary schools has given added impetus to the elementary guidance movement. Although guidance at the elementary level has been a topic of long discussion, at no time in the history of the guidance movement has it received the attention which it is receiving now from local, state, and national educational agencies, professional societies, and school practitioners. The literature which is being generated by this intensified interest often reflects the "bandwagon philosophy," that is, elementary guidance is here to stay, so we want to be for it. There are of course holdouts, but most people recognize that with the advent of the new NDEA extension, elementary guidance is here to stay.

Unfortunately, thus far no real need or basis for elementary guidance has been demonstrated. By introspection and deductive reasoning the unmet needs of elementary students have been determined, and it is assumed that meeting those needs will in turn reduce many of the problems that plague education. It does appear, however, that elementary guidance has been chosen, regardless of reason, to help in the elementary schools. This choice does not answer the questions which are pending concerning the implementation of guidance programs and the areas where guidance can be of most service.

One of the sub-controversies in a matrix of controversies concerning elementary school guidance revolves around the need for a guidance specialist in the elementary program. Koeppe [2] has written concerning this issue. "The literature on elementary guidance seems to be in unanimous agreement that the elementary classroom teacher has a key role in the program." Koeppe goes on to say that there is also agreement that the elementary classroom teacher cannot do the job alone and that a guidance specialist is needed. Ferris [1], although not writing in direct reference to Koeppe's article, has taken a different stand. Ferris makes the point that the elementary classroom teacher should conduct the total elementary guidance program. In support of his argument, Ferris states that (1) the school cannot afford guidance specialists, (2) the teacher is closest to the elementary school student and hence in the best position

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to help, and (3) taking students out of the classroom for guidance and counseling would add another interruption to an already hectic day.

The purposes of this study were twofold. The first objective was to obtain an indication of the elementary teacher's attitudes concerning the need for the various guidance functions. Individual functions were used because it was felt that teachers would react to these more realistically in terms of the needs of the students as they perceive them than they would to an emotionally laden term such as guidance when it is considered as a whole.

The second objective of the study was to determine the teacher's attitudes concerning who should perform the various guidance functions. Specifically, it was the intent to determine whether or not elementary classroom teachers felt that an elementary guidance specialist would be required to conduct any of the guidance functions involved in the total program. As a by-product of this investigation about who should perform the guidance functions, it was hoped that inferences could be drawn concerning specific areas in which teachers felt the counselor would be of assistance if indeed the teacher felt any need for a guidance specialist or assistance. This was not and is not to imply that the elementary teacher should be allowed to define the role of the elementary counselor, but if there are areas in which teachers feel that a counselor would be of assistance and counselors feel that they can assist, it would seem that some progress has been made toward the process of defining the role of the elementary counselor.

Procedure

A list of 71 guidance functions that have been mentioned in the literature as possible elementary guidance functions was assembled. Three thousand Indiana elementary (K-6) classroom teachers were selected to serve as the sample. The teachers were asked to perform two tasks in relation to the 71 guidance functions. First they were asked to rate the extent to which the function is needed in the elementary school program. Ratings were done on a "one" to "five" basis. A rating of one indicated that there was little need for a particular function in the elementary school, three indicated that the teachers felt some need existed, and five indicated that the teachers felt that the function was greatly needed in the elementary school. The second task which the teachers surveyed were asked to do was to indicate who they felt should perform each of the guidance functions listed. Four possible categories of school personnel were provided for the consideration of the teachers. These were the elementary school teacher, the elementary school counselor, the elementary school principal, and other school personnel. The "other school personnel" category was defined to mean the social worker, school psychologist, psychometrist, or the school nurse. A total of 992 teachers returned the questionnaire.

Findings

The respondents were in general agreement that there is a need for guidance in the elementary schools. An inspection of the mean ratings given to the 71 functions (see Tables 1-4) revealed that no guidance function received a rating of less than 2.99, and the remaining 44 functions received ratings of three or more on the five-point scale.

The second step in analyzing the data was to divide the 71 functions into four categories based upon the indications that the teachers gave concerning the personnel who they felt should perform them. Although no clear-cut majority is in evidence in some cases (18, 26, 30, 32), for the most part the responding teachers were solidly in favor of the elementary classroom teacher's performing the 33 functions listed. These functions are listed in Table 1.

Table 2 presents the functions that the respondents felt the elementary counselor should perform. In all, more teachers indicated that the elementary school counselor should be responsible for performing 27 of the 71 functions listed. It should be noted that the numbers of teachers indicating that the counselor should perform certain functions is not nearly so decisive as was the case with the functions that the respondents felt the teacher should perform. Although functions 6, 12, 14, and 23 shown in Table 2 are the most obvious examples of functions where the margin was small, it is evident that there was more sentiment for the principal and other school personnel than was demonstrated in Table 1.

Tables 3 and 4 present the functions that the respondent felt should be performed by the elementary principal and other school personnel respectively. Little responsibility for guidance was assigned to these groups.

Discussion

The extent of the teachers' indications of the need for guidance functions was somewhat surprising. It was expected that there might be some resentment against elementary guidance on the part of the elementary teachers because of the reasons cited by Ferris [1] and because of feelings that elementary guidance was infringing upon the traditional rights of the elementary teacher. Some evidence of strong feelings against guidance and guidance specialists was manifested in the returns, but the mean ratings and the number of guidance functions that the respondents felt the counselor should perform indicate that many elementary teachers feel that there is a need for guidance in the elementary school.

The question concerning elementary teachers' feelings about the need for a guidance specialist in the elementary school has, of course, not been completely answered. Certainly neither the position of Ferris [1] nor Koeppe [2] cited earlier has been supported. No unanimity of opinion was evident from the responses. What was shown was a feeling that teachers believe that they have considerable responsibility for guidance, but a great number of the teachers indicated a need for a counselor to help in implementing the guidance program. This does not mean that public relations work and in-service education does not need to be done prior to the establishment of elementary guidance programs and will need to be continued after their establishment, but it does demonstrate that guidance will have support among the teaching staffs of the elementary schools.

From the data gathered, some inferences can be drawn concerning how teachers feel about who should perform the various individual guidance functions. This is, of course, working on the assumption that there will be counselors employed to help with the operation of the guidance program and that the various guidance duties will be divided among the four groups studied. First of all, the teachers seemed to feel that counselors could be most helpful in three particular areas: working with students individually and in small groups, guidance administration, and research concerning the guidance function. It is also interesting to note that the individual and group counseling functions received high "need ratings" from teachers indicating that they would at least put some priority on this particular function.

Teachers were emphatic about the idea that they should play an important part in the guidance program. Teachers appear to believe that their guidance functions should include the identification of student needs, making referrals, working with parents, and working with students in areas that involve learning difficulties. The majority of the respondents did not rate the teacher as being responsible for any function which included counseling. This is indicative of the types of functions which the teacher expects to perform and the types of functions which the teacher expects the counselor to perform.

The respondents indicated that the elementary principal should be mainly responsible for orientation and articulation of programs and that other school personnel should be responsible for some of the miscellaneous aspects of the program.

That the role and function which the various school personnel should assume in the guidance program will require much more study from many other groups than the elementary teacher goes without saying, but it would seem appropriate that the opinions of the elementary teachers should be considered. At this point in time they should be more aware of the situation in the elementary schools than any other group.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn on the basis of the data gathered:

1. Generally speaking, there is recognition on the part of elementary teachers that there is a need for guidance in the elementary school.
2. There is also recognition that an elementary school counselor will be required to implement the guidance program. This does not mean that resistance from teachers will not be met in establishing guidance programs, but it does indicate that some support can be expected from this group.
3. Teachers feel that the counselor should work primarily with students as individuals and in small groups, in research, and in guidance organization and administration.
4. The teacher sees his own role in the guidance program as one of identifying student needs and problems, making referrals, working with the home, and working with students having learning difficulty.

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TABLE 1

Guidance Functions Which Respondents Felt Teachers Should Perform

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
1. Conduct individual conferences with children who are not achieving well in school.	4.43	580 58.47%	327 32.96%	49 4.94%	36 3.63%
2. Identify and refer children to the school nurse and speech therapist.	4.32	866 87.30	78 7.86	29 2.92	19 1.92
3. Recommend children to be screened for special classes.	4.30	693 69.86	165 16.63	72 7.26	62 6.25
4. Identify and refer students to the school psychologist.	4.29	752 75.81	150 15.12	70 7.06	20 2.01
5. Assist in promotion and retention decisions with a view for considering the best thing for the child.	4.23	475 47.88	234 23.59	236 23.79	47 4.74
6. Conduct group sessions on how to study.	4.23	611 61.59	291 29.33	56 5.65	34 3.43
7. Administer the standardized tests given in the school (i.e., IQ, Ach., etc.).	4.21	486 48.99	294 29.64	70 7.06	142 14.31
8. Discipline students.	4.20	726 73.19	61 6.15	190 19.15	15 1.51
9. Identify and refer children to welfare agencies.	4.19	543 54.74	144 14.52	157 15.83	148 14.91
10. Involve pupils in self-appraisal activities so they may better know their own strong and weak points.	4.16	688 69.35	250 25.20	30 3.02	24 2.43

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
11. Use standardized test results for diagnostic purposes (identifying pupils who are not working up to ability, ones who need enrichment or special help, ones who can not work at grade level.)	4.14	616 62.10	231 23.29	62 6.25	83 8.36
12. Conduct parent conferences to discuss home and family problems which are affecting children's school adjustment.	4.08	359 36.19	356 35.89	159 16.03	118 11.89
13. Periodically check on student grades to locate under-achievers for counseling.	4.02	499 50.30	362 36.49	92 9.27	39 3.94
14. Analyze cumulative record information to better understand children.	4.01	746 75.20	183 18.45	42 4.23	21 2.12
15. Conduct parent-conferences to better acquaint them with the school, and to develop a good home-school relationship.	3.98	462 46.57	174 17.54	339 34.17	17 1.72
16. Be responsible for ability grouping of students.	3.97	652 65.73	143 14.42	162 16.33	35 3.52
17. Conduct individual conference with each new child.	3.89	636 64.11	236 23.79	96 9.68	24 2.42
18. Analyze the instructional implications of the standardized testing program.	3.84	362 36.49	296 29.84	214 31.57	120 12.10

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
19. Make observations and write anecdotal records.	3.68	700 70.56	203 20.46	27 2.72	62 6.26
20. Make recommendations for curriculum changes.	3.63	521 52.52	175 17.64	231 23.29	65 6.55
21. Plan activities (discussion, field trips) to stimulate interest in the world of work.	3.60	698 70.36	203 20.46	63 6.35	28 2.83
22. Interpret test results to parents.	3.58	445 44.86	345 34.78	116 11.69	86 8.67
23. Prepare pupils for the next higher grade by group discussion.	3.56	756 76.11	143 14.42	82 8.27	11 1.10
24. Assist students to become acquainted with summer recreational facilities in the community.	3.49	378 38.10	265 26.71	207 20.87	142 14.32
25. Discuss the results of standardized tests with groups.	3.46	381 38.41	375 37.80	92 9.27	144 14.52
26. Conduct individual interview with pupils to interpet test results of standardized tests.	3.39	430 43.35	383 38.61	64 6.45	115 11.59
27. Administer sociometric device in order to determine adjustment to peer groups.	3.34	341 34.38	333 33.57	55 5.54	263 26.51
28. Assist students in becoming acquainted with out-of-school organizations such as Boy Scouts, etc.	3.33	387 39.01	262 26.41	183 18.45	160 16.13

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
29. Make a visit to each child's home at least once during the year to better understand his total environment.	3.33	554 55.85	156 15.73	33 3.27	249 25.15
30. Discuss with groups the purposes and contents of their cumulative record.	3.30	409 41.23	374 37.70	181 18.25	28 2.82
31. Take new pupils on a tour of the school plant.	3.24	559 56.35	150 15.12	223 22.48	60 6.05
32. Conduct individual conferences with students to discuss the content of the cumulative record.	3.16	445 44.86	421 42.44	97 9.78	29 2.92
33. Sponsor certain extracurricular activities.	3.08	487 49.09	148 14.92	263 26.51	94 9.48

TABLE 2

Guidance Functions Which Respondents Felt Counselor Should Perform

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
1. Provide counseling for students who are disciplinary problems.	4.54	151 15.22	551 55.54	151 15.22	139 14.02
2. Conduct case studies of pupils presenting special learning, adjustment or family and environmental problems.	4.40	113 11.39	482 48.59	43 4.33	354 35.69

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
3. Schedule special classes for students such as remedial speech correction, etc.	4.39	88 8.87	405 40.83	219 22.08	280 28.22
4. Do diagnostic work with children presenting problems.	4.21	265 26.71	415 41.83	69 6.91	243 24.50
5. Provide individual counseling on a continuing basis for the children presenting learning or adjustment difficulties.	4.17	152 15.32	588 59.27	83 8.37	169 17.04
6. Plan and coordinate the school's testing program.	4.11	215 21.67	356 35.89	271 27.32	150 15.12
7. Arrange for parent-teacher conferences as a result of counseling sessions.	4.10	360 36.29	390 39.31	198 19.96	44 4.44
8. Meet with small groups of children who have common problems.	3.92	338 34.07	489 49.29	97 9.78	68 6.86
9. Conduct group sessions on social and emotional adjustment.	3.76	169 17.04	531 53.53	71 7.16	221 22.27
10. Conduct a survey of the needs and interests of pupils.	3.77	297 29.94	504 50.81	142 14.31	49 4.94
11. Provide individual conferences for children who wish to discuss future goals and plans.	3.76	249 25.10	630 63.51	77 7.76	36 3.63
12. Conduct case conferences with teachers, administrators, and the school workers (i.e., social workers, etc.)	3.76	76 7.56	448 45.16	160 16.13	309 31.15

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
13. Conduct individual conferences with all children in which they may disuss matters of concern or interest.	3.72	426 42.94	450 45.36	65 6.55	51 5.15
14. Conduct in-service education for staff regarding the testing program of the school.	3.63	49 4.94	416 41.94	355 35.79	172 17.33
15. Discuss with groups their future vocational and educational plans.	3.59	418 42.14	472 47.58	72 7.26	30 3.02
16. Conduct an in-service education program for the staff in the areas of pupil appraisal.	3.57	67 6.75	488 49.19	286 28.83	151 15.23
17. Develop local norms for standardized tests given in the school.	3.48	80 8.06	403 40.63	219 22.08	290 29.23
18. Secure and evaluate occupational information for classes (i.e., film strips, slides, etc.)	3.46	288 29.03	440 44.35	190 19.15	74 7.47
19. Conduct research regarding the guidance services provided by the school.	3.43	96 9.68	548 55.24	271 27.32	77 7.76
20. Organize a school guidance committee.	3.37	92 9.27	450 45.36	375 37.80	75 7.57
21. Summarize and interpret the sociogram results and develop plans to facilitate peer adjustment.	3.34	260 26.21	446 44.96	45 4.54	241 24.29
22. Obtain persons to speak on occupations.	3.34	138 13.91	480 48.39	354 35.69	20 2.01

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
23. Prepare statistical summaries of group test results.	3.34	179 18.05	474 47.78	138 13.91	201 20.26
24. Administer personal data blanks, autobiographies and other student appraisal devices.	3.29	365 36.79	423 42.64	96 9.68	108 10.89
25. Conduct individual conferences for those pupils who wish to discuss sociometric results and peer adjustment.	3.24	228 22.98	525 52.92	58 5.85	181 18.25
26. Prepare news releases concerning guidance.	3.18	127 12.80	606 61.09	203 20.46	56 5.65
27. Conduct follow-up studies of pupils after they have moved away or into higher grades.	3.03	44 4.44	604 60.89	124 12.50	220 22.17
28. Discuss sociometric findings in groups identifying specific information.	2.99	264 26.61	460 46.37	64 6.45	204 20.57

TABLE 3

Guidance Functions Which Respondents Felt Principal Should Perform

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
1. Meet with parent groups to acquaint them with the various aspects of the school.	4.02	299 30.14	122 12.30	559 56.35	12 1.21

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
2. At the beginning of the school year, conduct group discussions on school purposes, rules, facilities, staff members.	3.96	407 41.02	78 7.86	500 50.40	7 .72
3. Plan and coordinate the school orientation program.	3.95	153 15.42	230 23.19	594 59.88	15 1.51
4. Plan the articulation of the 6th grade and Jr. High School programs.	3.84	166 16.73	340 34.27	440 44.35	46 4.65
5. Discuss referral sources and procedures with the staff.	3.80	133 13.41	307 30.95	481 48.49	71 7.15
6. Conduct group sessions in which staff members may discuss problems which they are having in the school.	3.78	190 19.15	133 13.41	632 63.71	37 3.73
7. Conduct in-service education for staff members regarding the use of cumulative records.	3.41	61 6.16	406 40.93	468 47.18	57 5.74

TABLE 4

Guidance Functions Which Respondents Felt Other Personnel Should Perform

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
1. Help children who need them obtain glasses, hearing aids, clothes, food and other essentials.	4.15	178 17.94	148 14.42	149 15.02	522 52.62

Table 4 (Continued)

Function	Rating	Teacher Should Perform	Counselor Should Perform	Principal Should Perform	Other Should Perform
2. Visit the homes of students who have behavioral, social, attendance or economic problems.	4.09	218 21.98	297 29.94	69 6.96	408 41.12
3. Conduct an in-service education program for staff members regarding mental health in the classroom.	3.57	57 5.75	357 35.99	147 14.82	431 43.44

A TEACHER LOOKS AT GUIDANCE

Dorothy Watson

One of my most painful memories as a teacher is of Laura. She was overweight, tall for her age, and two years older than her classmates. Laura spoke hesitantly and had a nervous giggle which irritated me. She was the loneliest child I have ever known. One day she brought a bag of small change to school, offered it to Fred, and asked if he would be her friend. I couldn't reach Laura, and my efforts with her parents – even her grandparents – were stalemated. Finally I turned for help to my principal. I gave up on Laura long before my principal did, but by June we both admitted defeat. Our resources and patience were exhausted.

The Changing Attitude Toward Guidance

Failures like ours with Laura have made many teachers receptive to a new dimension in the art of teaching: guidance. There is a feeling that teachers must do more than make referrals to an overburdened social worker who either takes the troublemaker off the teacher's hands or,

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with some potent elixir, induces the child to mend his ways and conform. Teachers are beginning to look to the field of human relations and to the behavioral sciences in an effort to learn more about children and to discover why teaching, even good teaching, is not always effective.

There are other reasons why elementary school teachers are changing their attitudes about guidance. The subject is being widely and convincingly advocated in professional journals and by leaders in the field of education. For instance, Louise Eckerson and Hyrum Smith say:

> . . . If they [children] are to compete successfully, adjust comfortably to the demands made on them, and maintain their balance and equanimity under a bombardment of new pressures . . . they must be prepared now. It is the responsibility of the school to prepare them. . . . He [the teacher] needs assistance in maintaining the physical and emotional health of all pupils to enable them to profit from instruction. Guidance consultants (counselors) can give the elementary school teacher the assistance he needs.[1]

And James B. Conant comments, "In a satisfactory school system the counseling should start in the elementary school. . . ."[2]

Perhaps the teacher's interest is sharpened because of the rising incidence of mental illness, or because guidance research is confirming what many elementary school teachers have suspected for some time: that long-range guidance, starting with elementary school, has substantial effects on student development; that potential dropouts can be spotted in the early grades; that good teacher-pupil relations facilitate teaching and learning; that good child-to-child and child-to-group relations facilitate learning; that controlling a child's behavior and changing a child's behavior are two very different things.

Furthermore, guidance research is changing the commonly held notions that guidance and good teaching are either synonymous or two distinct areas. These concepts have been succeeded by the theory that the two fields are not identical but are interwoven, so that we cannot say, "There, now, the teacher is teaching," or, "Look, now he is counseling."

Implications of the Guidance Approach

There are many reasons why a teacher might accept the guidance point of view. But acceptance is not enough. He must realize that using the guidance approach in the classroom means questioning and perhaps discarding practices he has held sacred for years. It may mean changing the focus of his educational effort. As Ruth Strang says, "Guidance is education focused on personal development. It is a process of helping every child discover and develop his potentialities. Its end result is personal happiness and social usefulness."[3]

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[1] Eckerson, Louise O., and Smith, Hyrum M. "Guidance in the Elementary School." *School Life* 44: 13; May 1962.

[2] Conant, James B. *The American High School Today*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959. p. 44.

Having a guidance point of view means that the child, not the subject is of major concern. This does not imply that the teacher is unconcerned with content. A guidance-minded teacher is interested in both student and subject. If this is, as some critics charge, serving two masters at once, I am for serving the child, because I believe that an emotionally disturbed youngster even with brilliant teaching, will not be fascinated with fractions or charmed by the intricacies of sentence structure. Perhaps critics fail to ask themselves basic questions about the relationships between the child and the subject matter and social structure of the school and community.

Teaching from a guidance point of view also means learning to work effectively with a team, generally consisting of teachers, principal, special teachers, supervisors, nurse, and counselor. The teacher's role in guidance is significant, but his role in an *organized* program can be more significant and productive than any solitary effort. Having a kind heart and pleasant disposition is desirable, but this doesn't mean that a teacher posessing these attributes also possesses the techniques for convincing a child he is a worthy individual, that he is understood, that the teacher knows he is troubled and is hurting. Similarly, a teacher may be adroit in spotting deviate behavior, but it doesn't follow that he knows how to cope with it.

The organization and administration of the guidance service is not primarily the teacher's responsibility, but it is important that everyone working in the program have a voice in formulating its philosophy and goals and in evaluating progress. Allocating responsibility keeps the organization from becoming fuzzy and frustrating; it should be made quite clear when the members are to work together and when they are to part company to perform tasks for which they are competently trained.

It is comforting to know what is expected of one, what one can expect of others, and where one is headed; but Leona Tyler points out in *The Work of the Counselor* that no amount of clarifying roles by organizational chart construction can produce an effective guidance program. As the teacher expects others to respect him and to consider his actions reasonable and intelligent, he, in turn, must respect the ideas of others. There must be mutual respect and cooperation on a guidance team: without them, the team fails in its responsibility to the children.

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[3] Strang, Ruth, "Guidance in the Elementary School." *Guidance for Today's Children.* Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1954. p. 2.

The Teacher's Contribution to Guidance

The teacher's major contribution will obviously be in the classroom. Since he spends more time with the child than any other adult, except the parents, he may know the child as no one else knows him. He discovers special talents and interests; he is aware of restricting physical defects; he detects abnormal behavior that may hinder the child's social, emotional, and academic growth; but most important, his close association with children affords the opportunity of seeing the world through their eyes. He can know what affects children, what threatens them, what they believe about themselves, and what they believe about others. Daily contact with the child places the teacher in a powerful position for observing and even changing the child's behavior.

The teacher can create a classroom climate that encourages acceptance of self and of others, promotes genuine friendships, and facilitates optimum learning. Children reflect their teacher's attitudes and actions; teachers can capitalize on this. If the teacher consistently displays genuine understanding and patience, in time the children will consciously or unconsciously mirror such behavior. In the warmth of a guidance-oriented classroom, the sullen, belligerent, or aggressive youngster may turn his energies toward understanding of himself and of others and away from hostility or withdrawal.

The individual is primarily important, but in the classroom the teacher works with both individuals and with groups. The role of the teacher in a guidance program requires an understanding of the importance of group relations; he must investigate the possibility of the group's becoming a medium for both instruction and guidance, since to have thirty-two highly individualized teacher-to-pupil relationships running simultaneously borders on fantasy. Grouping for more individual attention in traditional subjects is a familiar procedure for the teacher, but now he must consider how group membership can help the child mature socially and emotionally, as well as academically.

> . . . we can safely accept the view that group phenomena definitely affect the progress of learning as well as the kind of learning that takes place. The educational significance of this view derives from the fact that the pupil's attitudes as well as his behavior patterns are modifiable. Increased motivation in participating in the classroom

> activities, and consequently in learning, derives from several different potential sources in group atmosphere where good mental hygiene prevails.[4]

Providing for group activity allows the teacher to examine the relations between children, giving him valuable insight into the emotional and social health of the child and of the group.

In addition to group work on regular assignments and special projects, the teacher should encourage group discussions wherein the children may express freely their thoughts and ideas; he should use sociometric devices, both as a basis for grouping and as an aid in locating isolates; and he should be familiar with the techniques of role-playing, which help children see and experience a problem and allow them to try out behavior (devious and otherwise) without threat of consequence.

Because a child's security and stability are closely related to his academic achievement, the role of the teacher with a guidance point of view also includes the responsibility of seeing that the child succeeds in mastering subject matter at his level of ability. Helen Heffernan comments on the teacher's role in this area: "The teacher could adjust the curriculum to the child's needs and interests so that he might experience a greater feeling of adequacy in relation to his school tasks."[5]

The Teacher's Contribution to Research

Perhaps less obvious than the role an elementary school teacher can play in the classroom is the contribution he can make to research in guidance, i.e., studies, investigations, and experiments that contribute to our insight into the world of children. Some educators feel that this is not part of the teacher's role, but I believe that teacher participation in research is desirable. Research in the classroom can improve the guidance service itself, can lead to the improvement of instruction, and can tell us more about the process of learning. It is not a case of the teacher's stepping into alien territory, nor is it an indication that the teacher is more concerned with the child's being understood than with seeing that he understands. The teacher engages in research because he sees that it may increase his competencies in dealing with children and in understanding how they learn. Research can become one of the most exciting activities of a teacher's professional life.

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[4] Trow, W. C.; Zander, Alvin; Morse, William; and Jenkins, David. "Psychology of Group Behavior: The Class as a Group." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 41: 335; October 1950.

[5] Heffernan, Helen. "The Role of the Teacher in Guidance." *Guidance for Today's Children.* Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1954. p. 62.

Two projects in my own geographical area illustrate this point. Last year a group of sixth grade teachers in Kansas City, Missouri, participated in The Youth Development Project. Even though their work on the project is finished, they continue to meet — unofficially and regularly. The objectives of this experimental program, which is being continued this year with another group of teachers, are: 1) To reduce the incidence of pupil problems; 2) To equip teachers with knowledge and skills in helping the poorly motivated, disquieted, unproductive and potentially pre-delinquent pupils; and 3) To evaluate the effectiveness of the project in the hope of transplanting its most useful elements to other school situations.[6]

A second project, conducted in the Hazlewood School District, St. Louis County, was Operation Self Concept. This experiment began with pupils in the third grade and followed them through the sixth grade. The longitudinal study used diagnostic testing, individual conferences in which the teacher or counselor discussed with the student his strengths and weaknesses, and small voluntary group discussions wherein children talked over their problems. Riley R. Eddleman, Director of Guidance Service, reports:

> Twice yearly these pupils were tested diagnostically. . . . As soon after each test as was possible, the teacher and the counselor sat down with each pupil to discuss his progress. During the fifth grade a change in each child was noticed. The change was in the child's self-image and indicated the emergence of a self-concept. The following September when a battery of tests was administered these youngsters were one full year ahead of all other beginning sixth graders in the entire school system. The by-products were equally noticeable. Their teachers glowed when they stated that never had they seen such students before. They were well motivated and a joy to know. These boys and girls have since continued to perform well and to give unusual leadership in their secondary levels.[7]

Possibilities of a Guidance Team Approach

The combined efforts of skilled, creative, and cooperative personnel in a school and in a school system can be a powerful force. Through teamwork, the members learn from one another, each contributing information from his field. The team considers the curriculum. Guided by the counselor, the members investigate research possibilities. In an organized approach, the teacher has a dependable resource for help in dveloping ways of working with children with special problems. (Perhaps he could only throw up his hands at such problems before the development of the new approach.) The teacher can get advice from the counselor about group techniques, sociometry, role-playing, and specialized testing. As the teacher becomes competent and confident in the use of his new knowledge, he is less likely to pass the buck for the solution of relatively minor or temporary trouble and for discipline problems. Who knows where such teamwork might lead? Possibly, with this approach, the principal will have time to administer, and the counselor might even find time to counsel.

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[6] Paraphrased from a list of objectives for The Youth Development Project by Robert W. MacNeven, Coordinator, 1962.

[7] Eddleman, Riley R. "The Research Role of the Elementary School Counselor." *Research and the Counselor.* Guidance Services Section, Missouri State Department of Education, (n.d.) p. 35.

The team approach to guidance can do much to support and encourage a teacher, especially if he has had no formal training in the field of guidance. But just as we do not expect the ungraded primary, individualized reading instruction, or hot lunches to answer all our problems, neither do we expect a guidance approach to work miracles. But in light of what we are learning about human behavior, isn't it worth serious consideration? Unfortunately, since there are few organized programs in the elementary schools, we know too well what happens when there is no guidance program. One of my most painful memories is of Laura.

FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A HUMAN DEVELOPMENT SPECIALIST?

RICHARD HILL BYRNE

In the literature and speeches of the past ten years relating to guidance functions in elementary schools there has appeared a statement which is typified thus: "Counseling (or guidance) in elementary schools must not be just a copy of counseling and guidance services in secondary schools; it must be distinctive.

This demurrer is received with head nods of agreement. In or associated with this kind of statement, however, have been two deficiencies.

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One is that some speakers or writers have not given any evidence of those elementary school counseling or guidance procedures which are supported by research evidence, although most persons are ready to offer opinion about such procedures.

On inspection, these opinions appear reasonable. The more fundamental deficiency lies in the explicit or implied "givens" in the statement – the given that present patterns of pupil service practices in the secondary school are the base for the development of elementary school pupil service practices, with some modification as appropriate for the age level of elementary school children.

Man institutionalizes his behavior, and this provides for both feelings of personal security and for cultural continuity. But institutionalized behavior must always be challenged so that human rather than institutional values can be kept paramount. It was inevitable, and justifiable, that present institutionalized pupil service procedures would be adopted for elementary schools, that they would be givens for this rapidly expanding area of service.

It was equally inevitable that some persons would question whether past procedures could provide the best starting point for the function of the in-school elementary level pupil service worker. This article will describe one of the efforts being made to discover the optimum array of functions of this in-school worker with minimal reference to the historical givens or to institutionalized procedures.

Look at the cumbersome circumlocution used in the preceding paragraphs: "the elementary level in-school worker." Its use shows a rejection of the word "counselor" as a given. If the term "counselor" is to be uncritically used, it follows logically, as it has also followed in practice, that the prime function of the in-school worker is to counsel. Let us relook at the archtypical statement in the first paragraph. It protests that elementary school counselors must differ from their secondary counterparts. Operationally, however, this typically seems to mean only within the narrow band of certain givens.

The elementary school "counselor," we find on inspecting some propositions and practices, predominantly counsels. The difference between him and secondary counterpart lies in counseling procedures. The elementary school counselor, as another illustration, is supposed to provide occupational information, as does his secondary counterpart. The difference between the elementary and secondary school approaches to the topic seems to lie in the reading level and complexity of the occupational information. In practice, then, we find that, demurrers to the contrary, elementary school guidance, and particularly the functions of elementary school counselors, are indeed found in frequent numbers to be copies of secondary school procedures, right down to the premise that they are to serve pupils in crisis, or just those who seek their help.

Although the details of the research activity to be reported here are the element of this article which may have the greatest interest for readers, it is necessary to briefly describe the context of this activity.

This research activity is being carried out by one of the regional research and demonstration centers of the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services (IRCOPPS). This is a body representing sixteen national professional and interest organization which have concern for any one or several pupil service areas. The Commission was established because its constituent organizations acknowledge that present pupil services were inadequate in quantity and where they were adequate in quantity, there often were major inefficiencies in functions. The need was apparent to these associations that more valid research bases must be established for pupil services. They created the Commission, with a commitment to research. IRCOPPS was funded by a research grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, and the four research centers were set up.

A Cross-professional Worker

The main research project of the Eastern Regional Center has been an investigation of a cross-professional worker for in-school service in elementary schools. His functions are bi-modal at their first level of analysis. He is first one who is to serve a development-enhancing function for all pupils. This requires the knowledges of psychology, particularly the psychology of learning, and anthropology and other research areas which bear effectiveness as learners and as humans. His second mode of functions includes those through which he assists in restoring to learning efficiency and general effectiveness those pupils who have fallen into learning deficiencies or general ineffectiveness.

In moving to a second level of analysis of his experimental functions, we must again examine context or rationale.

One major, historical given which can and does determine the function of in-school workers is the presence in school systems of those pupil services functionaries called psychologists and social workers. Their employment automatically places a limit on the in-school worker, a limit which typically is not challenged. Indeed, not only is this limit not challenged, but those school systems which have counselors in elementary schools, and also have system-based psychologists and social workers view themselves as fortunate; in fact, the only regret stated is that there are not enough psychologists and social workers.

This center, however, also rejects as givens the traditional array of practices of school social workers and psychologists. This is not just because research ought to reject givens. These traditional practices are rejected because examination of the origin of these workers and their practices shows the operation of institutionalism more than of reason.

This statement posits a crucial issue, which can not be explored because of the limits of length of this article. Perhaps one can explain the rejection of this major given. Psychologists and social workers were functionaries developed at other times for other institutions, and certain of the practices which each of these professions considers its distinctive area of performance are defensible, less on professional training and competence grounds than on tradition and institutionalism. To put it in more positive tones, a rational case, at least for experimentation, can be made for having in-school elementary level pupil service workers learn to perform some functions which typically call for referral to specialists.

Child Development Consultant

We turn again to the experimental practices. Because this trial worker had to be titled so as to distinguish him in our research from traditional practitioners, also included in the research, the term *child development consultant* (CDC) was chosen. Eight CDCs are or have been engaged in concurrent training and practice. The training is offered by the interdisciplinary staff of this center, supplemented by other university and school system persons. Their effects on pupils over a two-year period are being measured by criterion instruments, and their functions and effects are being compared with those of five counselors. Two visiting teachers, stationed in schools for this research, provide additional contrast group, even though their number is too small to permit any generalization. In all, 23 schools in two states are cooperating in the research.

There have been preliminary runs of some of the data. The final data runs will be made at the end of this first project in the summer of 1967.

Obviously statements about this experimental worker based on the best evidence cannot be made until analysis of the total pool of data is made in the summer of 1967. Short of that, however, we can state that a cross-professional worker can be trained, and he can function in schools. We cannot state his general effect on pupils as yet, nor his differential effect in contrast to traditional procedures for deploying elementary school service personnel.

What if our findings confirm present (the traditional) practices as being best practices? Then society is in fortune, because we already have well-polished procedures within these historical givens. If we find that a cross-professional worker, designed "from scratch" for elementary schools, provides not only faster, more efficient services for the crisis cases, for the "problem" pupils, but has a pervasive, development-enhancing effect on all pupils, then society again is in fortune.

In that case, this comparatively new arena of pupil services, at least numerically speaking can be developed in the manner of greatest benefit to most pupils. Thus it would not have to suffer either later redevelopment after practices become fixed, or, more problemsome yet, to have redevelopment opposed because of the pressures of institutionalism.

AN APPROACH FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR: CONSULTANT OR COUNSELOR?

G. Roy Mayer

There is a rapidly increasing demand for trained counselors in the elementary school to help deal with the concerns, behavior problems, and general emotional and educational development of children. The most recent manifestations of this demand have been the increases in the number of elementary school counseling programs and the provision of support for such services by the federal government (e.g., the 1964 extension of the National Defense Education Act). However, much of the research data and other material in the field is fragmented, scattered, and contradictory. Thus, counselors and other professional people who work with the behavior problems and concerns of children often find themselves working more from knowledge gained through experience than from professional literature and research data. One result of this situation is little agreement among experts as to the specific role or purposes of an elementary school counselor. The present paper attempts to integrate personal experience and much of the present available data, recommendations, and concepts in an attempt to clarify and initiate a conceptual framework that defines counseling as the central role of the elementary school counselor.

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Many professionals have attempted to apply data, experience, and concepts obtained from working with adult clients to children. However, it is now realized that "the emotional and behavioral disorders of childhood differ in many significant ways from the adult disorders, and *the younger the child the more marked are the differences*" [9, p. 8].

The younger the child, the more dependent he is, not only biologically but psychologically, on 'significant others' within this perceptual field. The child is constantly in a greater state of flux or change than the adult. As the child's biology rapidly develops, his social role, psychological processes, self perceptions, and behavior also expand, develop, and change. The younger the child, the more vulnerable or sensitive he is to inner and outer changes and stresses. For example, the infant responds to stress by almost complete disorganization of behavior patterns, such as crying, screaming, hollering, and so on. But, as soon as another stimulus pattern appears, he is content again. Thus, the environment is objectively and phenomenologically more important and influential upon children than adults.

Studies have indicated that the elementary school child is influenced considerably by his environment. Bandura and Kupers [1] have experimentally demonstrated that children (7- to 9-year-olds) tend to adopt criteria for self improvement exhibited by an adult or peer; they tend to adopt the criterion of an adult more readily than that of a peer; and they go on to evaluate their own performances relative to the obtained standard. The criterion then serves as the child's own reinforcing agent. Other studies have indicated that the elementary school environment has a considerable influence upon the child's self-concept and behavior [2, 3, 4, 11]. For example, Staines' results [11] indicate that teachers can even modify children's self-concepts unintentionally.

It can be concluded that children are more dependent and respond more readily to changes from within and from without than older people. Thus, many children with "adjustment" difficulties recover spontaneously due to internal or proper external environmental changes. Others, however, worsen or remain maladjusted. The elementary school counselor can help through counseling and guidance procedures by providing environmental changes that will facilitate positive change or psychological growth.

What information and concepts can the counselor call upon when attempting to instigate positive environmental changes for elementary school children? The most important single source of information is *not* the parent or teacher but "*always* the child. There is absolutely no substitute for observation and interviews with him" [9. p. 38]. The way each child perceives himself and his environment is unique, and directly influences his behavior. Therefore, the counselor "must know how the child looks at his problems, his world, his own behavior, and that of others" [9, p. 38]. The understanding of the child's perceptions and the correction of his maladaptive and unrealistic responses to them are, of course, the essence of counseling.

By coming to understand the child and his perceptions through counseling, the counselor is able to relay to the child's teacher, within the limits of confidentiality, additional information as to how he perceives his environment, as well as information concerning his interests, frustrations, and abilities. Such information can provide the classroom teacher with clues for motivation and instruction. The teacher also becomes more aware of the child's individual needs [5]. Also, by talking with, and working closely with the teacher, the counselor is able to increase his own understanding of the classroom environment. To put it another way, he obtains counterparts in his own perceptual field common to those of the students, which in turn help him to further understand the child's perceptions and to increase the child's understanding of himself and his environment.

Communication with the child's parents, who have considerable control and effect upon the child's behavior, is also an important function of the elementary school counselor. As with the teacher, who influences the child considerably, the communication is reciprocal and within the limits of confidentiality. An elementary counselor should plan to include parent conferences and home visitations as part of his regular program, as a means of not only gaining and increasing the understanding and cooperation of the parents, but also of furthering his own understanding of the child.

Counseling has been stressed by some as the heart and core of the elementary school counselor's role, with consulting with teachers and parents important auxiliary functions. However, many have stated or implied that the child is too immature to benefit from counseling. Others, including the author, hold that elementary children not only can, but do benefit from counseling. For example, elementary students who received counseling were shown to change positively in sociometric status when compared to non-counseled students [7]. Jersild seems to have been correct when he stated [6]:

> . . . human beings, from an early age, have more capacity for learning to face and to understand and to deal with the realities of life than we hitherto assumed in our psychological theories and in our educational practices.

Elementary school counselors are finding that children can and do benefit from counseling. Mary Weiking, one of two full-time elementary counselors employed in the Bloomington, Indiana, area, has stated:

> We have found that children can and do express their feelings and concerns and that children as young as kindergarten and first grade can enter and apparently profit from a counseling relationship. Secondly, also contrary to published opinions by others in the field, children do refer themselves; they learned in our schools to see the counselor as a mature "friend" whom they could trust and who they knew was interested in them. By the end of the (1st) year, over seventy-five per cent of our counselees were self-referrals. A third finding of interest is that children saw the counselor in a positive image. Counselors were perceived as being for everyone in the school, not only for "problem" kids. Because each of us was in one school full time, it was possible to work with almost all of the 400 children in each building sometime during the year.

Perhaps another reason that many stress consulting in preference to counseling *per se,* as the primary role of the elementary school counselor, has been the apparent failure of attempts to generalize to the elementary school counseling procedures used in high school guidance programs. For example, in the high school the counselor often counsels with students regarding their future occupational-educational plans. At the elementary level, the concerns of the students are more with the present. The elementary school counselor's sessions are more centered about fears and anxieties and other student concerns relating to the home and school. During such sessions, play materials such as toy telephones, hand puppets, and art media are often used to facilitate communication and to put the child at ease. The counseling sessions are also, of necessity, shorter in duration due to the shorter attention span of younger clients.

Group counseling is also considerably different. The neonate, or newborn, does not, of course, socially interact with peers. The two year-old stage is considered the period of parallel play. As the child becomes older, his social skills increase. The elementary school child is more dependent and demands more attention than older clients. It will also be recalled that the younger the child, the more influence his social interactions have upon him. It would seem, therefore, that the size of the counseling group for elementary children must necessarily be smaller than adult or high school counseling groups. Authorities working with elementary children in group counseling sessions have recommended that the group size be limited to five or less [7, 10], which is considerably less than the eight or more usually recommended for high school and adult clients.

When doing group counseling, the counselor should take care to choose a room with the fewest possible distractions, due to an increase in distractability and a decrease in attention span at this age level [7, 10]. It might also be helpful to know that grouping students over a one- or two-year age range has been found to be satisfactory at the elementary level [8]. Furthermore, when counseling with children in groups or individually, the elementary school counselor must realize that the counseling environment is likely to be very influential upon the child. Children not only tend to be less defensive and more vulnerable and sensitive to their environment than adults, but they also appear to be very empathically tuned in to "significant" adults. It is very difficult, if not impossible, for a counselor to play a "role" or be someone other than himself while counseling children. The elementary school counselor should, therefore, be able to relate honestly to the child as a person who values him as an individual of significant worth.

Summary

It has been suggested that counseling can and should be the central role of the elementary school counselor. With counseling as his central role, his function is distinct from that of other school personnel such as administrators, teachers, social workers, psychometrists, and school psychologists. Because of the distinctive nature of his role, he is an important member of the school personnel team. He is in a position not only to aid the instructional program through obtaining the child's perceptions of his environment, his areas of interest, frustration, and ability, but also to facilitate the child's development through increasing his knowledge and understanding of himself and his environment. Through using such an approach, the elementary school counselor would seem to be a very positive influence upon the school environment and the individual student.

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AN OUTLINE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE: THE NEED, PHILOSOPHY, AND PROGRAM

FREDERICK B. GANNON, RODNEY L. PETERSON

The last decade has seen a number of changes in both the organization and course content of the public schools. Administrators and teachers, encouraged by boards of education and foundations, are constantly seeking methods by which the needs of children can be met more effectively. In the interest of raising our educational sights to better meet these needs, let us consider the inclusion of a trained counselor in the professional staff of the K-6 program.

In the following discussion guidance shall be defined as the program and the counselor as the specialist primarily responsible for implementing the program. Counseling shall refer to the process of implementing the program.

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At the present time guidance in the elementary school, although not clearly defined, is seen as a part of the total program conducted by classroom teacher, school social worker, psychologist, nurse and principal. It is a generally accepted opinion that the teacher of a self-contained classroom is the one individual who is best qualified to counsel with the children. The teacher is the one staff member who lives with the children for most of the school day and is therefore in the favorable position of knowing the "whole" child. The other members of the team are meant to act as consultants to the classroom teacher.

Unfortunately, there are three basic fallacies inherent in this traditional viewpoint. First, the classroom teacher is primarily trained as an instructor and not as a guidance specialist. The authors, however, are not unmindful of the fact that guidance in some degree is constantly taking place in the classroom. Second, the resource people available to the teacher are too frequently utilized only when there are gross adjustments to be made. Third, if the classroom teacher had only 10-12 children with whom to work, the traditional approach might still hold some validity. In any approach, the classroom teacher would certainly be the source of much of the information used in working with the child.

In an unpublished study completed by Kenneth G. Randall and Earl F. Telschow of the Rochester City School District, it was found that during the school year 1957-58, 140 pupils were placed on psychiatric exemption because they were unable to function normally in their respective school environments. Of these 140 pupils, 64 per cent were discovered to be of normal or greater than normal intellectual ability. The children involved in this study did not include children on exemption because of mental retardation or physical disabilities. In other words, these were only children so emotionally and/or socially disoriented that they were unable to function within the confines of the school situation.

The pertinent question for the purpose of this discussion is: how many of these children could have been saved through an adequate program of guidance? How many other children are there in our schools who might be helped through an adequate guidance program at the elementary school level? Fortunately all of our failures are not so dramatic as to appear as exemptions. Is it any the less a failure, however, when a child's maladjustments or less severe unadjustments prevent him from exhibiting the best possible performance?

A program of guidance in the elementary school must not be merely a watered-down version of a good secondary program. The elementary program must support and extend the total elementary school stage of development during which many of the difficulties first germinate. If not immediately dealt with, these might later develop into the problems of adolescence. It is conceivable that the counselor at this point can render "mental first aid" in hope of thwarting the maturation of problems.

The counselor, at this level, is not considered a psychologist, a teacher, a social worker or a substitute parent. Yet to any given child at any given moment he may be called upon to serve in one or all of these capacities.

The addition of the counselor to the professional staff does not preclude the team approach currently used by many schools. The counselor must become a member of the team. He must function with a spirit of cooperation, not assuming the prerogatives of the other team members, but increasing their effectiveness. He must operate on a full-time basis each day of the school year.

What are the duties a counselor is to assume? Specifically, the one duty *not* to be assumed is that of a vocational counselor. Rather than aiding in planning for the future per se, the elementary school counselor's approach should attempt to aid the child in attaining the most effective possible living in the present. By aiding the child in adjusting to the present, the counselor will be assisting the child in building a firm base for future growth.

Counseling with children, in order to be effective, must also involve counseling with parents. Children of pre-school age are constantly being advised and guided by their parents. It seems desirable to maintain this relationship, not by assuming parental prerogatives, but by supporting, strengthening and augmenting a program already under way in the home, thereby assuming that the school is merely an extension of the home.

Recognizing this fact will enable the elementary school guidance program to function realistically and the effectiveness of the program should be enhanced. Channels of communication between the home and the school must be kept open to promote mutual understandings; thus creating a milieu conducive to the best possible adjustment by the children. In practice, this striving for greater cooperation and mutual understanding may well be the single greatest function of the elementary school counselor.

The one test that must be applied to any function under consideration for the elementary school counselor is: what can the counselor do more effectively than the classroom teacher?

The counselor is seen as having three distinct advantages over the classroom teacher. Primarily, he will have time to work with pupils without adhering to a rigid schedule; secondly, he can work with children outside of the formal classroom setting and finally he may, unlike the teacher, work with a child individually without purloining time from other children to do so.

In his attempt to help the child obtain the best possible social and academic adjustment, the counselor may well enter, with the child, upon the following areas:

The discovery and encouragement of interests and talents unique to the individual child. The counselor will act as a support and a supplement to the classroom teacher.

Getting along with others. The counselor and the child might well explore together such topics as living with parents, siblings and peers.

How to best function in the environment of the school. The sub-areas here could include such matters as taking tests and developing adequate study habits.

Personal problems. Personal problems, their sources and solutions may be best approached by the child with the mature aid of the counselor.

Personal problems in the elementary school child? Surely these children can't have any "big" personal problems – yet! In *most* instances the personal problems of these children are not "big" ones, but if not abated these "small" problems can later become "big" problems.

The origins of the personal problems may run from the areas noted above to matters associated with things such as smoking, drinking and the onset of puberty. No matter what we might like to feel, it is totally unrealistic to deny the above as problem areas at the elementary school level. These problems are best met by the child with the assistance of a trained person.

The question which inevitably arises in a discussion of the counselor's role is his relationship to discipline. There is no clear-cut answer. The counselor's position in relation to discipline, or more importantly discipline problems, must be indirect. Many of the discipline problems, however, will be the overt manifestations of the covert problems with which the counselor is expected to assist the child.

The counselor must not be seen by the child primarily as a disciplinarian. This does not, however absolve the counselor of all responsibility for discipline. As a staff member he must assume a fair share of this responsibility, but only to the point that it does not interfere with his most basic functions as a counselor.

In summary, the elementary school counselor is an additional member of the team comprised of parents and school personnel, whose basic concern is helping the child obtain the most effective possible academic, personal and social growth.

PHYSICAL FACILITIES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING

RICHARD C. NELSON

The physical setting within which the elementary counselor performs his duties is in need of some attention in the literature. The objective of this article is to examine three possible physical arrangements of counseling centers in the light of four basic assumptions.

1. The physical setting where the counselor works should be comfortable and attractive.
2. The counseling setting should be designed to accommodate groups of children as well as individuals.
3. The physical arrangements should be structured so as to permit and encourage using play media in elementary counseling.
4. The setting should permit observation of counseling by counselors-in-training and should provide to the certificated counselor the in-service training advantages of observation.

Brief discussions of each of the four assumptions follow; then attention is focused on the plans.

Assumptions

Attractiveness. To convey the impression visually that the counseling setting is one encouraging comfort and relaxation, it should be pleasing to the sight. Pictures, draperies, a rug, plants, etc., should confirm the intent of the counselor to create an unhurried environment in which the child may develop his ideas and express his feelings and concerns. There may not be corroborating data showing that a sterile physical atmosphere reduces the counselee's willingness to talk, but human beings do tend to develop a sense of well-being from the environment about them.

A group and individual setting. The elementary counselor should work in a setting which permits comfort in a one-to-one relationship, and which allows for groups to meet equally well. Some children's concerns are highly personal or of such a nature as to warrant no one else's involvement. On the other hand, there are many concerns which children face that clearly can best be worked through with peers. When a group is part of the problem or when individuals need a group within which to test their assumptions about people and to improve their social skills, group counseling and guidance may be indicated.

Play in counseling. Space does not permit a full discussion of this point, but we may assume that behavior can be observed, that play often

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shows the observer ways in which a child reacts to events, and that the child may use play as an outlet for his emotions, e.g., he scolds his toy dog when he is frustrated, he dances and skips when he is excited, and he orders his toy soldiers about and smashes cars together when he is angry. If we accept these assumptions, then we should accept the idea that children can be helped to express their concerns and satisfactions through play activities.

In the school setting the utilization of play media in counseling should be focused on the normal child. Rather than emphasizing the analytical advantages of play, the stress would be placed on the advantages of facilitating communication and expression.

While many adults find satisfaction in venting feelings through verbalization, play with unstructured materials provides similar cathartic values for many children. As the adult finds symbolic play unsatisfying to provide needed release, so a child may find verbalization unsatisfying. The adult may "talk through" a social relationship and find ways of coping with situations that confront him and, similarly, the child may utilize puppets to gain insight into ways to cope with aspects of his environment.

A setting which provides unstructured opportunities for the expression of the child is a must for the younger child and may also be used advantageously by the older child. Instead of feeling uncomfortable because the conversation is lagging, the child may turn to clay manipulation. He is "doing something" so neither he nor the counselor experiences the anxiety typical when verbalization lags, and as a result neither is quite likely to divert the discussion into unprofitable lanes.

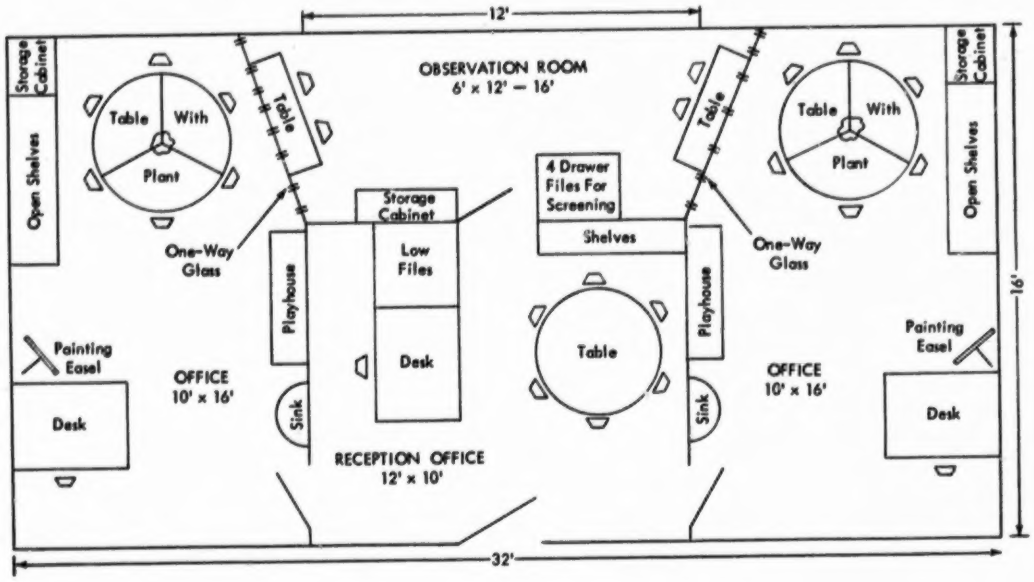
Observation. The need for in-service development of the counselor, the internship, and the off-campus practicum, should encourage the construction of counseling centers which permit observation. The professions of medicine, law and teaching design many experiences for their members to demonstrate skill in a semi-private setting which affords consultive assistance; the surgeon in the operating rooms is assisted and observed by colleagues and interns; the lawyer consults during the preparation of a brief, and may have assistance during its presentation; and teachers are observed by supervisors and student teachers. Live observations of the verbal and non-verbal behavior of counselor and counselee and subsequent discussions of counseling interviews are excellent bases for developing and improving counseling skills. The counselor should have the opportunity for the kind of development through consultation which can only occur in this way.

Counselors-in-training and interns in counseling can be helped immeasurably if construction includes observation possibilities. Counselor-educating institutions will seek to place trainees in locations affording the best opportunities for supervision. The counseling center needs some storage area and the increased cost of adding observation advantages to a storeroom would not be prohibitive. The major portion of cost is in the additional floor space required to create a setting for a counseling intern and/or second counselor. The gain in the effectiveness of counseling as a result of observation and discussion should be well worth the cost.

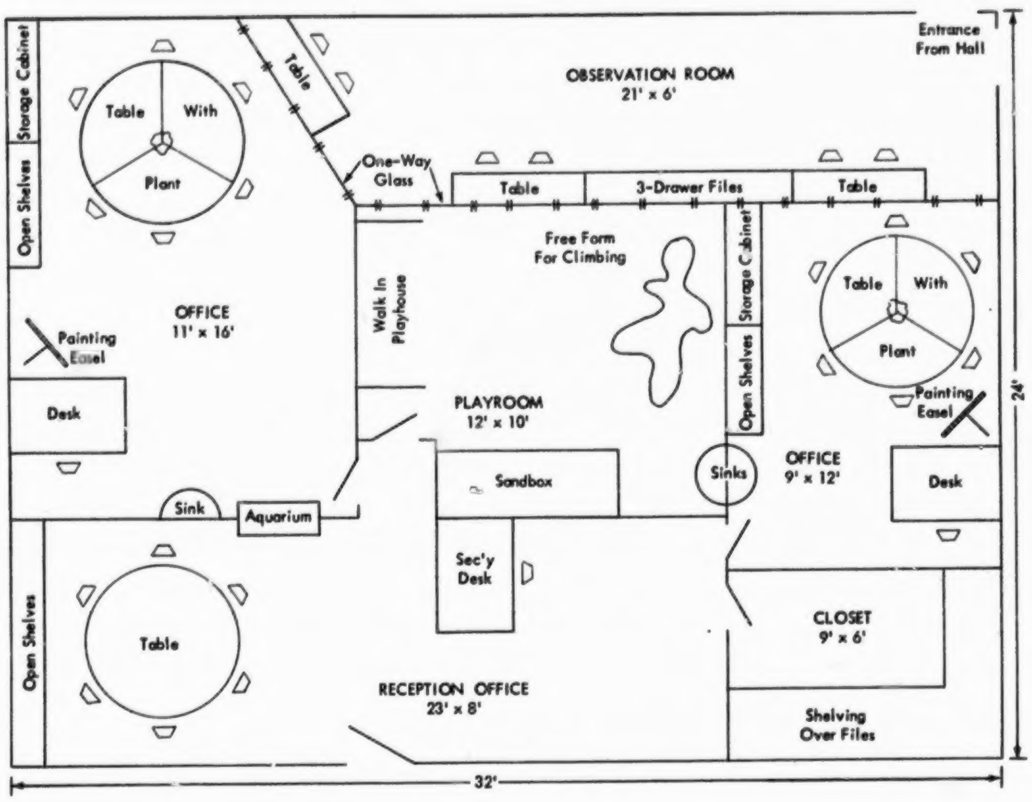
The Counseling Center

Three options of elementary counseling centers are described and sketched here. These assume a school population up to seven or eight hundred students and one or two counselors who may from time to time work with counselor-trainees or interns. For larger schools additional counseling facilities should be considered. For schools in districts where the population is likely to have greater need for developing mental or remedial guidance help, depressed area environments, for example, the ratio of students to counselor should probably be kept well under three hundred to one. In those situations presenting a more expected range of developmental and remedial guidance needs, a ratio of as many as four hundred students to one counselor will probably be adequate.

ELEMENTARY COUNSELING CENTER—OPTION 1


12'
OBSERVATION ROOM
6' × 12' – 16'
Storage Cabinet
Open Shelves
Table
With
Plant
Table
One-Way Glass
Storage Cabinet
Low Files
4 Drawer Files For Screening
Shelves
Table
One-Way Glass
Table
With
Plant
Storage Cabinet
Open Shelves
16'
Playhouse
Playhouse
Painting Easel
Painting Easel
OFFICE
10' × 16'
Desk
Table
OFFICE
10' × 16'
Desk
Sink
Sink
Desk
RECEPTION OFFICE
12' × 10'
32'

ELEMENTARY COUNSELING CENTER—OPTION 2


Entrance From Hall
OBSERVATION ROOM 21' x 6'
Table
One-Way Glass
Table
3-Drawer Files
Table
Storage Cabinet
Open Shelves
Table With Plant
OFFICE 11' x 16'
Painting Easel
Desk
Sink
Aquarium
Walk In Playhouse
Free Form For Climbing
PLAYROOM 12' x 10'
Sandbox
Storage Cabinet
Open Shelves
Sinks
Table With Plant
Painting Easel
OFFICE 9' x 12'
Desk
24'
Open Shelves
Table
Sec'y Desk
RECEPTION OFFICE 23' x 8'
CLOSET 9' x 6'
Shelving Over Files
32'

Suggestions follow for the specific areas within the counseling center.

Counseling Offices

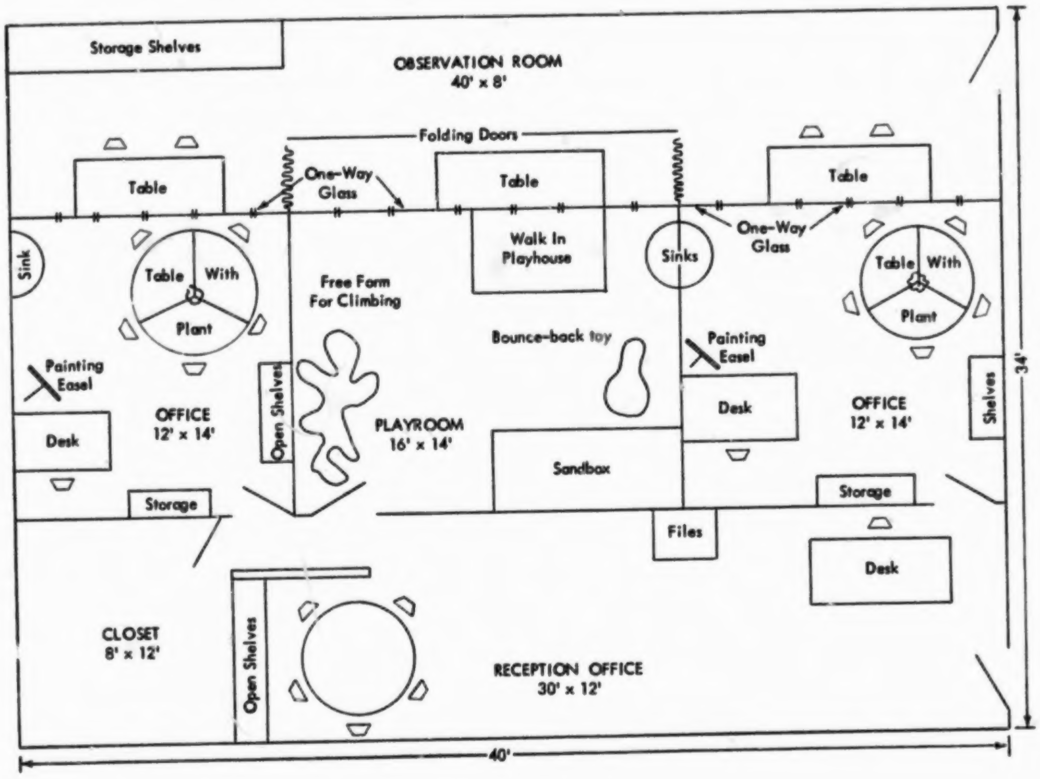
1. Several comfortable chairs for children of varying ages.
2. Comfortable desk and chair for the counselor.
3. Storage area for paper supplies, clay, etc.
4. Open shelves for hand puppets, picture books, small play house (if not elsewhere in the room), building materials, etc.
5. Sink for use with paints and such materials.
6. Painting easel.
7. A table around which groups can gather, perhaps a three-sectioned table which can readily be moved and which can be situated around a tall plant.
8. Ceiling microphones.
9. Draperies for the observation glass.
10. Rug.
11. Pictures and small plants.

12. Mirrors placed so that any unobservable corner of the counseling room may be seen from the observation room.

Observation Room

1. One-way glass which is placed for viewing the counseling rooms.
2. Storage area for files and equipment.
3. Tape recorder(s) with earphones for hearing and recording interviews.
4. Chairs for observers.
5. Work tables.
6. Draperies so that lights may be on in the observation room when counselees are in the counseling rooms.

ELEMENTARY COUNSELING CENTER—OPTION 3


Storage Shelves
OBSERVATION ROOM
40' x 8'
Folding Doors
Table
One-Way Glass
Table
Table
One-Way Glass
Sink
Table With Plant
Free Form For Climbing
Walk In Playhouse
Sinks
Table With Plant
Painting Easel
Bounce-back toy
Painting Easel
Open Shelves
Desk
OFFICE
12' x 14'
PLAYROOM
16' x 14'
Desk
OFFICE
12' x 14'
Shelves
34'
Sandbox
Storage
Storage
Files
Desk
CLOSET
8' x 12'
Open Shelves
RECEPTION OFFICE
30' x 12'
40'

Reception Office

1. Table and comfortable chairs for counselees.
2. Secretary's desk and chair.
3. Open shelves stocked with attractive books and drawing material.
4. Accessibility to files for the secretary.

Playroom (Options Two and Three)

1. Floor covering of vinyl tile or other less destructible materials.
2. Sandbox.
3. Walk-in play house.
4. Free-form climbing apparatus on gymnasium mats.
5. Large bounce-back toy.
6. Draperies for the observation glass.

Discussion

Much of the descriptive material is self-evident and requires no further elaboration, but some comments are needed.

Air conditioning would be highly desirable, if not absolutely essential, so that each room is well ventilated. This would eliminate the necessity for windows and permit the placement of the center in a central spot within the school plant.

The major difference between options two and three is in providing more floor space for the reception office. A ten-by-ten office would not permit or encourage children to wait in as much comfort as would be desirable.

Except in option one, access to the observation room may be gained from outside the counseling center. This is advantageous in that it provides an opportunity for observers to enter without arousing the concern of the children.

The separate playroom, which allows for some big muscle activity by the child, is sacrificed in option one. This is regrettable, but it may have a slightly lower priority than observable space and space for counselor trainees.

WHY GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

E. Gordon Poling

The coats, caps, and boots have been sorted, buttoned and buckled. The children have vacated the premises and the halls are quiet except for the sound of the custodian as he moves his mop through the halls of the elementary school. Miss Four-B breathes a sigh of relief as she kicks

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off her heels and pours the last bit of coffee from the ever handy thermos. Lesson plans are complete, the attendance slips are brought up-to-date and she murmurs softly to herself, "T.G.I.F."

At last there is time for a few moments of relaxation and reflection as Miss Four-B contemplates next week's work and the accomplishments so far this year. She glances out over the room and views the empty desks as she sips from the cup. Her eyes wander from row to row as she forms a mental picture of the children who occupy the seats for a great percentage of their time during the week. "What a fine group I have this year," she muses, "How fortunate it is for me that I am an elementary teacher. I only wish I had a little more time to spend with each one of the children."

Knowing vs. Understanding

Miss Four-B knows her students quite well and takes a personal interest in each one of them. And yet, even though she *knows* them, it is difficult to *understand* each one and why each behaves in a particular way. Why is Billy so shy, and Jimmy so rowdy, and Mary so dreamy and Susan so inattentive? Jill is such a "good" student but she doesn't respond in discussions. They're all so much alike and yet there are ways in which they all differ from one another. Miss Four-B wishes she had the time to *really* understand each one. But what if she did really understand each individual child, would understanding be enough?

All teachers have probably had some of these same thoughts pass through their minds at various times during the years they have been involved in directly influencing the lives of the pupils for whom they are responsible. Most elementary teachers are faced with some of the same problems and frustrations imposed by so much to do and so little time in which to accomplish the tasks. Many become so busy teaching skills and subjects that they have little time to teach and understand children, and yet all education is predicated on the assumption that those things learned in school will eventually affect the behavior of the individuals outside the classroom and their adult lives.

Sharing Responsibility

To whom can one turn for assistance in an attempt to provide an educational experience that is truly meaningful for each and every child that ventures through the hallowed halls? For many years the onus of this responsibility has been placed upon the shoulders of the classroom teacher. An assist in this area could very easily become the responsibility of the elementary school guidance worker or the elementary school counselor.

Particular Concerns

What are some of the general needs of children and youth in our schools that might be of particular concern to the elementary counselor? Hill has suggested the following:[1]

> (1) Boys and girls need to mature in their understanding, their acceptance, and their sense of responsibility regarding themselves. Without these three conditions no person can be his best nor can he live his best with his fellows. Much of this understanding, acceptance and responsibility comes from the proper arrangement of relations with others.
>
> (2) Boys and girls live in a complex world in which the fullest possible education is imperative if they are to find their most productive place in the world of work. Thus they need to grow in their understanding of education and of work through an increasingly mature interaction with their environment.
>
> (3) Boys and girls are faced with the constant necessity of choice-making and problem-solving. Thus it is necessary for them to mature in learning how to make wise choices, how to plan their lives sensibly, and how to solve their problems in a rational manner and also with a high sense of moral values.
>
> (4) Boys and girls live in a complex of social settings – the home, the neighborhood, the school, the community, the world. Beginning with the simpler adjustments of home life, they day by day expand the scope of their adjustments. Thus they face the need for developing those values, behaviors, and insights which enable them to live with a minimum of fruitless friction and a maximum of maturity in social attitudes and skills.

While other lists of specific and general needs of children and youth might differ somewhat most would agree that the above would certainly be included.

Many school experiences tend to reinforce inaccurate and unrealistic self-concepts. How can a child develop a wholesome attitude toward himself and his worthiness as an individual human being if he is non-academically oriented or intellectually inept when the emphasis in school is to do well in the academics?

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[1] Hill, George E. "Guidance in Elementary Schools," The Clearing House. XXXVIII (October, 1963), 111-116.

Students need to develop self-understanding while recognizing their limitations and strengths, and they need to find ways in which they might capitalize upon the capabilities they have and to muster compensating factors which minimize the effect of any limitations.

All students have a right to develop to their maximum potential in ways that will be beneficial to them in the present and in the future. Many need to examine themselves and their educational experiences in view of their aspirations, needs, goals and desires. Life is abundant with decision making situations and problem solving experiences and children must learn how best these choices can be determined. They must also become aware of the responsibility involved in self-direction and choice-making. We know that the majority of man's difficulties, individually and universally, stem from inadequate or unsatisfactory inter-personal relationships. One simply must learn acceptable ways of getting along with others if he is to be a complete individual.

Maturity Guides

How might an elementary school counselor assist students in this development and preventative venture to maturity? How might the educational experience be enhanced in order to become more meaningful and efficient for all of the children, of all of the parents, in all of the classes, at all grade levels? Organized guidance and counseling services should not be viewed as the panacea for which so many have been searching. The elementary counselor can not become the "miracleman" of the elementary school. The elementary counselor should, however, be able to make a significant contribution to the total educational program by utilizing those skills and understandings that he possesses as a specialist in human relationships and child and adolescent development.

Counselor Obligations

The elementary school counselor along with all school counselors has as his first responsibility a *primary* obligation to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of the counselee or students with whom he is working.[2] This is not intended to infer that the counselor, as an employee of the school does not have other responsibilities to the administration, parents and faculty since these are concomitant obligations necessary to fulfill his primary function. In order to carry out this major commitment the elementary counselor might become involved in the educational program in many ways.

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[2] "Ethical Standards" American Personnel and Guidance Association, Section B, No. 1.

First, and probably foremost, he should be prepared to work with children in individual and group settings. For some children, individual counseling interviews are desirable and necessary; for others – with common concerns – small group experiences seem to afford opportunities for maximum growth and learnings. In these counseling sessions, children are given the opportunity to explore their feelings regarding their environment and themselves and begin to make rational conclusions regarding their unique position and role in the larger society.

A widely accepted point of view holds that all people are basically good and have within them the potential to solve their own problems and direct their own destiny if given an adequate opportunity to increase their environmental and self understanding. Age would not be a significant variable for those oriented in this direction. When one gains this self understanding, he is ready to make wise and prudent decisions regarding his interaction in the environment. Other counselors believe that more direction and control are needed at the lower age levels and that youngsters need not suffer the consequences of making wrong or improper decisions. Those embracing this philosophy would become more actively involved in guiding students toward the achievement of satisfactory levels of goal-reaching.

Ordering Change

Regardless of theoretical position the counselor is vitally concerned with assisting the child in developing better self-understanding. Mary, a fifth grader who has been getting all A's in her first four years, suddenly begins to underachieve. There might be many reasons for this but it is quite doubtful that Mary knows or understands the causes of this change in behavior. An elementary counselor, working with Mary individually should be able to assist her in gaining insight into her concerns. Telling Mary that she should do better is not the answer, since we know that learning seldom occurs by just being told. One is involved here with attitudes, values, peer and parent approval, goals and aspirations, and these are developmental concerns present in all people at all levels. Small group discussions regarding school and peer relationships can often be beneficial to children in the elementary school.

This specialist in human relationships should also be actively involved in helping teachers better understand the children and their personal and professional influences as they direct the learning experiences in the classroom. Often these conferences with teachers would be on an individual basis in atempting to arrive at worthwhile objectives for each of the youngsters and meaningful ways of attaining these objectives. Small group discussions with teachers and administrators are valuable in developing a pupil-oriented philosophy of implementing the principles of education unique to the community.

Defining Maturity

Sometimes we seem to forget the universal definition of mature behavior – that which is normal for a particular age group. A temper tantrum might be quite normal behavior for a three year old child but would be an inappropriate method of coping with frustrations at age ten. We need to be constantly aware of principles of learning and educational psychology as it applies to child and adolescent development. An elementary counselor can provide these in-service experiences as he works with teachers and administrators.

A third area of responsibility which the guidance worker must be willing and able to assume is in working with parents as they attempt to understand the child, the school, and the child in the school.

Fostering the Positive

Many parents are at a loss for words when attempting to explain their perception of the child's behavior at home and at school. This is particularly difficult to comprehend when there is a significant difference between these two environmental behaviors. This working with parents who are genuinely concerned with providing a home climate conducive to maximal development is an important and complex function, but a very necessary one. Individual parent conferences where the focus is upon a mutual concern for the individual child can do much in fostering positive relationships between home and school and between parent and teacher and can have a definite effect in long-term behavioral changes. No single agency is responsible for the total development of a child and it is impossible to achieve the desired outcomes of education if there is not an integration of purpose and method.

One other area of major concern to the elementary counselor is in recommending proper referrals and programs when necessary. All of us should recognize our limitations and we should not hesitate to solicit some other agency or individual when they can more appropriately furnish the assistance demanded by the individual's peculiar need. Perhaps the school psychologist or the remedial reading teacher is more prepared to provide the special services needed by the child. Perhaps the local physician, the social worker or the clinical psychologist will become involved.

Team Effort

In conclusion, one final word of caution. Significant changes in school programs and impacts require *team-effort*. The counselor at the elementary school attempts to make a contribution to the over-all educational program as he works with students, teachers, administrators and parents. His greatest strength comes from his education and experience and his concern for people. His greatest resource is the elementary teacher who is equally concerned about the children in her self-contained classroom. In working with the student as he gains self and environmental understanding, and in working with the teacher in developing an increasing awareness of individual concerns and methods of alleviating these, his modus operandi should be guided by his belief in people and their willingness and desire to improve. Paraphrasing a statement by a noted authority in the field of counseling, perhaps the elementary counselor can say — and can assist others in coming to feel — that it is of enormous value when one can permit himself to understand another person and can be acceptant of himself.[3]

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[3] Carl R. Rogers. "Counseling Points of View." Modern School Practices Series, No. 3, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1964, pp. 14 & 16.

Books Are Our Summer Friends
Dr. Seuss
B
C
3

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER – THE KEY PERSON IN A GUIDANCE PROGRAM

PART 2

Guidance Roles and Functions of the Counselor and Other School Personnel in Elementary Schools

After proposing a national-level plan to determine the nature and characteristics of elementary school guidance, Professor Harold F. Cottingham considers in his second paper *the counselor's role in elementary school guidance.* The primary concern of his discussion reveals that no explicit categories of operation are commonly found regarding the role of the elementary school counselor because many issues surround the problem of defining such a role.

The functions of the guidance worker in the elementary school and counselor preparation are discussed by George E. Hill in his second contribution to this volume. He cites eleven types of duties for the reader's consideration and concludes that the preparation of counselors for elementary schools must be broadly based and interdisciplinary so this person can perform an effective role as counselor in an elementary school setting.

Dr. William P. McDougall and Dr. Henry M. Reitan are Associate Professors, College of Education, Washington State University, Pullman. In a survey conducted in the states of Idaho, Oregon and Washington, they sampled the perceptions of the elementary school principals. A wealth of information was obtained from this investigation. Those who prepare elementary school counselors should be aware of these findings as they have important implications for counselor education programs.

It is generally agreed that guidance in the elementary school is a team effort. Dr. Robert T. DeVries carefully outlines and discusses the principal's responsibilities in the guidance program. He specifically defines three major roles of the principal in the guidance program, each of which involves both procedural and substantive matters. According to DeVries the three areas of the principal's responsibility are administrative, supervisory and public relations.

The position that guidance consultants are at the center of guidance programs in elementary schools has been taken by Louise Omwake Eckerson and Hyrum M. Smith. Their observations suggest that patterns of selection and preparation of persons going into guidance work vary. They suggest that as the movement grows, experimentation and evaluation should determine the preparation programs which can contribute most effectively to the needs of children. They also urge schools to use an eclectic approach in organizing elementary school guidance programs within pupil personnel services so each child benefits from a cooperative effort of all professional personnel.

THE COUNSELOR'S ROLE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM

In order to examine the role of the counselor in the elementary school it is necessary to explore the nature of the guidance function at this level. This approach is based on the assumption that the counselor is one of several educators all of whom have some responsibility for implementing the goals of guidance for elementary pupils. This discussion will outline (a) the purposes of elementary school guidance functions; (b) the nature and characteristics of guidance activities; (c) the personnel responsible; (d) the role of the counselor; and finally (e) some issues related to the counselor's task.

The purpose of guidance, or of the guidance function in education must be compatible with the broader, more inclusive goals of the ele-

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mentary school. As listed by Dr. Brown in a companion article, the goals of elementary education offer a sufficient range within which to subsume the objectives of the guidance function. Initially, it is possible to broadly categorize sources of objectives to meet pupil needs into (1) studies of learners (psycho-social concerns) and (2) studies of society (cultural heritage). In turn, activities developed to implement these goals are sometimes dichotomized into guidance and instruction although obviously neither is mutually exclusive. Some writers (Strang, Cottingham, Miller) take the position that guidance emphasizes experiences dealing with problems, decisions, values and plans while instruction (in the traditional sense) places more stress on the acquisition of skills, facts, concepts and communication. The complementary aspects of these experiences, as well as the organismic nature of the child, offer strong bases for a careful plan of interweaving both into the total school program, within instruction and beyond (Watson). Similarly, teachers and others in direct contact with children recognize this duality of purpose.

Several specific purposes can be tried to explain further the "why" of guidance activities in the elementary school. Hill, Tiedeman, and others have addressed themselves to this question. One significant purpose of guidance work at this level is the development of a sense of responsibility and self understanding that permits the child to react with confidence to his environmental demands and explore with personal security choices open to him. The outcomes of this goal, if successful, should be an awareness by the child of his unique self as the central figure in a meaningful existence, strengthened by freedom derived from responsible interaction with life's challenges. Another non-academic learning associated with guidance is pupil assistance in making decisions resolving personal concerns and working toward emotional maturity. This goal of personal adequacy stresses removal of intrapersonal conflicts which, when reduced or eliminated, gives the child psychological freedom to accept himself and thus to be able to function at a higher intellectual level. A third purpose of guidance activity with elementary children is that of social development, including not only interpersonal communication skills, but an appreciation for and an identification with proper value judgments expected by society. A final goal of guidance centers upon aiding youth to acquire an understanding of the role of education, work, and leisure time in an increasingly complex occupational world. This purpose has a central thrust enabling children to continually evaluate their own educational and vocational capabilities in relation to our ever changing employment opportunities and requirements.

A word should be said as to the "what," or nature and characteristics of guidance in the elementary school. Essentially, as Patouillet expresses it, guidance is seeking a greater degree of self discovery and fulfillment through educational experiences that are meaningful to the individual. Expressed differently, guidance stresses individualized education which aims to strengthen the uniqueness of the child by releasing his native potential to reach freely and individually to the knowledge transmitted by his school and non-school environment. Those responsible for guidance (within and beyond instruction) have a responsibility to assist the child to his own individualistic translation and interpretation of reality, to his own individualistic interaction with others, and to his own individualistic expression of self (Rabeck). A similar objective is expressed by Ruth Strang who states that guidance is education focused on personal development (Strang).

One or two other characteristics of elementary school guidance also need identification. The developmental approach to the establishment of guidance functions where both preventive and remedial features are evident is commonly supported. The cooperative involvement, on an organized basis of both administration, faculty, and special staff is another basic condition. It is recognized however, that many factors including philosophy of the administration, socio-economic levels of community, qualifications of personnel, and ratio of resource specialists to enrollment are of great significance in establishing "guidance readiness." Finally, it is suggested that although guidance focuses on a variety of pupil problems, a four-fold category of personal (self understanding), social, academic, and vocational concerns may prove to be useful.

Before discussing the specific functions of the elementary school counselor the broad responsibilities for guidance by other school personnel warrants attention. As implied by earlier comments, other professional groups including administrators, area resource personnel, and teachers have a distinct responsibility in the guidance area. These responsibilities vary but must still be identified since it is doubtful if a counselor can be effective without the supporting guidance work of other key people who also influence the child's behavior. A basic concept underlying this position is that if guidance as a type of educational intervention is to have a unified thrust it must reach the pupil through a variety of contact points. Every teacher has a guidance role which complements her instructional role; though distinct areas of action, these roles may often overlap.

The counseling service in the elementary school (at the moment) is not clearly identified with one professional person. The school counselor may share this responsibility with the school social worker or the school psychologist. Titles, too, are not commonly used, and no one title has been generally accepted by those engaged in counseling (and guidance) in the elementary school. Some suggestions for an overall title such as child development consultant, guidance worker, or helping teacher have been made, without much success. Related to the question of job title is that of function. Currently, studies are underway to examine and possibly clarify the functions of various pupil personnel specialists.

The primary concern of this discussion, the role of the elementary school counselor reveals that, again, no explicit categories of operation are commonly found. This is due to several conditions, one of which is that the exact nature and role of the guidance function in the elementary school has not been clarified to the mutual satisfaction of teachers, guidance workers, administrators, and other personnel specialists. Some research and considerable theorizing has been done, however, which points up a possible classification of duties. Broadly speaking, the elementary school counselor has three areas of responsibility (a) counseling with students, (b) consultation with teachers, parents, and other school personnel, and (c) coordination or leadership of guidance functions in the total school. With respect to type of functions provided, the three problem areas referred to earlier in this article might be relevant. Another grouping based on areas of pupil need is proposed by Smallenberg – learning, physical, social, and emotional problems. Certainly, the resources available to a school or system, as well as the skills of the counselor will affect his job functions. In a small school with few referral agencies the counselor may of necessity engage in more counseling of a therapeutic nature. Similarly, with few curriculum advisers or school psychologists to call upon, the counselor may spend considerable time in diagnostic work or in service education with teachers.

Many issues surround the problem of a more adequate description of the role of the elementary school counselor. Several points of concern have already been mentioned. Until the teacher's guidance function has been more clearly delineated the complementary work of the counselor will be seen variously, depending on many factors. Related to this question is that of services needed by teachers (for pupils) that they cannot because of time, ability, or training, perform themselves. Other unsolved areas of difference rest in the therapeutic function of the counselor, his appropriate training, his relationship with other helping professions, the relative emphasis (assessment or treatment) and the focus (cognitive or affective pupil concerns).

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GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

GEORGE E. HILL

The major emphasis of this paper will be upon the functions of the guidance worker in the elementary school and upon her preparation. What is said about these matters will not make much sense, however, unless a statement of the meaning and the purposes of guidance in elementary schools is first provided.

Meaning and Purpose for Elementary School Guidance

The idea of guidance in our schools is as old as the concern of a sensitive teacher for his pupils. The practice of guidance in our schools is as old as the efforts of this teacher to help his students grow and develop to their fullest potential. Guidance services in secondary schools and colleges came into being to meet the needs of the individual – both the individual student and the individual teacher. Guidance services in our elementary schools are developing for exactly the same reason.

The development of guidance services and the appointmnt of staff counselors in elementary schools has been stimulated by five forces:

(1) The acceptance of the educational implications of what has been learned about child development. If a seventh grader is to want to make the best of his abilities, he must start to learn to want this during the earlier phases of his education. If a third grader is to develop wholesome attitudes toward others, the process of socialization must start in the cradle. Education is a slow, insistent push; not a matter of fits and starts. Thus guidance has to be viewed in terms of the full sweep of the educational effort.

(2) The education of the whole child has become a reality in terms of the common effort of most teachers in most schools. The teacher must educate the whole child, and she must also help him master an explosion of knowledge such as the world has never before seen. Thus the professional teacher sees that child development in her classroom requires aids for which teachers once felt no need. The "self-contained classroom" is no longer equated by the teacher with the "self-sufficient teacher." It is the most competent teachers who call upon the special service personnel for consultation in meeting the needs of particular children and in planning richer learning experiences for all children.

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(3) The increasing complexity of choices – and thus of decision-making and the growing awareness that basic attitudes and choices begin early in the child's life – makes teachers and administrators see the need for a critical evaluation of childhood education as to the impact of these factors upon the child's growth in life-planning and choice-making. Although the jokes about deciding in kindergarten whether to go to college are overdone, there is an undertone of reality in them.

(4) The forerunners of the high school dropout problem, of the problems of under-achievement, and of the waste of the talents of girls and of children from minority groups, lie in the child's experiences from babyhood to adolescence. Thus their problems cannot be adequately dealt with if consideration of them is delayed until junior high school. Low aspirations, antisocial attitudes, low self-estimations attitudes begin their formation early in life. If the school is to do its best, its efforts must begin early and must be persistently developmental.

(5) There is increased awareness of the impact of home life, parental attitudes, and community influences in the determination of the child's sense of self, his aspirations, his values, his achievements. Thus the school, never an island of isolation, has moved even further into the child's extra school life. As parents have become better educated and more responsible, the school has developed more fully its program for the involvement of parents in the education of their children.

These five developments have formed the basis for the introduction of organized guidance services in the elementary school.

As it is now developing in elementary schools, guidance is emphasizing the following goals:

(1) To enhance and make more functional our understanding of all children and to enhance and make more functional all children's understanding of themselves. In many schools, teachers have the services of special service workers in counseling, in child study and in working with parents in the exchange of information about children. Such understanding as provided by these must be tested by the child through self-study, discussion, observation, and study of the world of choices in a personalized setting. The child comes to self-understanding by looking at himself and as a consequence of individual and group experiences which help him to see himself in his environment with its demands and as others see him.

(2) To help children with their goal-seeking, choice-making, and life-planning, all good teachers work day by day with their class groups. Many teachers are finding the building counselor a ready aid in several aspects of these matters:

a. Counseling the individual child who needs more help with choice problems, as he sees the need.
b. Working with the teacher to plan, and sometimes to conduct, discussions of such matters as "Why do we go to school?" "What do the standard tests tell us?" "Why do our daddies have the jobs they do?," and the like.
c. Helping the teachers to find resource materials for units on the world of work and on our ultimate place in that world.
d. Working with parents, individually and in groups, to coordinate the school's efforts with those of the home.

(3) To help children develop socially, to mature in their relations with others, requires all the skill, patience, and ingenuity that any teacher can command.

To integrate this development effectively with a productive program for learning demands that the teacher effect a proper integration of many phases of the child's experiences. At times children whose personal and social adjustment has become entangled or frustrated will need special attention. Teachers especially value the aid of a ready referral source, preferably someone on the staff of their building. This person has time assigned to study the child, talk with him, talk with his parents, and do the many things that help with the processes of individual adjustment. A counselor on the building staff can be an invaluable help with such problems.

This phase of childhood education is best conceived of as an ongoing developmental program and not just as a remedial or adjustment effort. Here the classroom teacher may value the assistance of a skilled counselor. Well prepared in small group processes, this counselor helps the teacher plan, and in some instances may conduct, group discussions regarding interpersonal relations and social development. Both as a counselor and as a consultant, the elementary school counselor can thus aid with the teacher's job of social education.

(4) To help children begin early to grow in their understanding of the role of education in their lives and to help them mature in their own planning, the teacher must give systematic attention in the elementary school to the place of education and of employment in one's life. Research now shows clearly that any effort at vocational guidance which begins in the secondary schools must be built, if it is to be effective, upon a sound foundation of the following:

a. Systematic orientation to the world of work through instruction, individual study, observation, and exploratory experiences. The elementary school counselor is trained to help teachers develop units on education and vocations and to find materials and resources which enable the teachers to build a unified approach to the study of these phases of life-planning.

b. Enrichment of experiences regarding education and employment through field trips, interviews with workers, viewing of films and other audio-visual materials, and the like. The counselor and teacher can work together in planning such experiences.

c. A program of parental involvement on the proceses of life-planning which enables the child to explore and to begin his own planning in an atmosphere of support and understanding. The counselor can be of material aid in parent conferences (group and individual), in presentations to P.T.A.s about the child's problems of life-planning, in individual counseling with children, and in many other ways of bringing about a proper integration of the adult forces playing upon a child as he matures in his own planning.

d. Much attention in the instructional program of the elementary school to experiences which help children develop accepting and respecting attitudes toward the work of all people. Such attitudes are essential to good employment relations in adulthood and are a significant part of our personal values in life.

Functions of the Elementary School Guidance Worker

The presence of a staff member, called a "school counselor," in the elementary school has already been mentioned at several points in the opening section of this paper. Certain conditions inevitably will have, and have had, an effect upon the definition of the school counselor's roles and functions in elementary schools:

(1) Definition of functions may never achieve standardization, or singleness, of definition. Variations in pupil personnel program organization, variations in philosophy and purpose will be sufficient to insure some variety of roles among elementary school counselors.

(2) There is need for the coordination of the various pupil personnel services in elementary schools. The counselor's role will be to coordinate these services. The counselor's role in the elementary school will also be defined with proper regard for the coordination of his services with those of the instructional supervisors.

(3) Role definition for elementary school counselors must take cognizance of the counselor's relationships with parents and with community agencies. To an even greater extent than in secondary schools, parental involvement in child guidance requires that counselors be thoroughly prepared in a great variety of school-home and school-community relationships. Certain conditions of appointment and job definition are also of great importance as one conceives of the school counselor who is to function in the elementary school:

a. The elementary school counselor is a member of the building staff. Thus she is a team member, available for close, intimate work with the teachers, the principal, the other special service workers, and the supervisor.
b. She is an educator, prepared and experienced in teaching in the grades. She knows the work of the teacher.
c. She will probably serve a pupil population of 400 to 600, although such figures are strictly rule-of-thumb. It is probably much better to consider the idea of 50 professional staff members for each 1000 children. This might be 40 teachers and 10 others (principal, assistant, supervisor, special teachers, counselors, nurses, school psychologists, and the like). The point is that we must recognize the need for well-rounded and adequate staff services.
d. This counselor is appointed to a school after thorough study of its needs by the staff and at least a tentative definition of functions by the staff. Acceptance by the staff is imperative. Organizational patterns differ too much to permit a set pattern for this process. But where the work of the counselor in the elementary school is most effective today is in the schools where staff were involved in the process of planning the program and in selecting the counselor. What, then, will this elementary school counselor do? The elementary school counselor's duties are emerging from guidance program development, from theoretical considerations, and from proper adaptations of our long experience in secondary school guidance:

Eleven Types of Duties Have Developed:

1. *To provide a service to children through counseling.* His goal will be to assist pupils to understand themselves in the context which they live, in home, school, and community.

2. *To provide assistance to teachers through help in development of instructional content and method that contribute to the needs of children.* This will include early study of the place of education and of work in one's life.
3. *To provide assistance to children through the conduct of small group sessions involving children with special common needs or problems.*
4. *To provide help to teachers in achievement of understanding of children.* His knowledge of child study and of child development will supplement that of the teacher so that the teacher may make the fullest use of the dynamics of the elementary age group.
5. *To serve as a resource to parents in assisting them to provide home environment that will contribute to the development of their children.*
6. *To serve as a referral agent himself, so that the most effective use may be made of psychological, health, social service and other special services.*
7. *To serve as an aid to other staff members in effecting proper referrals of children needing assistance from other agencies.*
8. *To serve as a resource person with the principals, the director of personnel services and others in the organization of a guidance program that is continuous throughout the school system and is properly articulated with other school systems.* This includes a record system, testing programs, and appropriate guidance activities at all grade levels.
9. *To take leadership in the coordination of the total program of pupil personnel services.*
10. *To serve as a resource person in the planning and conduct of such inservice and school planning activities as are needed to keep the total school program, and the guidance program in particular, in a constant state of up-grading.*
11. *Research*

In current practice, many elementary school counselors are now providing primarily assistance to teachers with their problem children — those having social adjustment and learning difficulties. If the guidance movement in elementary schools becomes rutted in the remedial or corrective emphasis it will fail to achieve the potential that is possible. Definition of the functions of the school counselor in elementary schools must, therefore, be rooted in prior commitments to a broad developmental view of the function of special services for children, for teachers and for parents.

Conclusion

While there are varied approaches to the organization, the staffing, and the specific elements involved in various programs of elementary school guidance (15) there has emerged a sound foundation of agreement regarding goals or purposes. The agreement regarding goals is rooted in our common concern for the fullest possible development of the child — not only as regards his usual school learnings, but also as regards certain other significant learnings that we see as coming best only with proper attention to the full scope of his development. These learnings include: maturing in self-understanding, maturing in self-responsibility, maturing in understanding of the world of education and of work, maturing in ability to make decisions and solve problems, and maturing in a sense of values. These learnings require careful, systematic attention from early childhood.

The elementary school counselor, or guidance specialist, if she works mainly with the problem children, will not differ much from the usual patterns of the school psychologist. If she works as a consultant, counselor, and close colleague of the teacher in enriching the learning of all children, she will have to be a person of broad preparation, a high-level general practitioner.

The preparation of counselors for elementary schools, must be broadly based, inter-disciplinary, so that this person becomes:

a. A sound applier and interpreter of what we know about child development.
b. An effective consultant and colleague with teachers and other instructional leaders.
c. An effective collaborator with parents.
d. An effective counselor of children.
e. An effective applied research worker, a constant student of what the educational processes do to children, and thus a vital contributor to better educational programs.

It is doubtful that this can be done in one academic year. It is my conviction that guidance workers in elementary schools will need two years of graduate preparation. Their selection, preparation, endorsement and certification should be developed along lines different from those for secondary school counselors. Few universities as yet have developed adequate counselor education programs for the elementary school guidance worker.

Some say we do not know enough yet to move ahead in elementary school guidance. To this I reply: Thirty years ago we did not "know enough" to move ahead in secondary school guidance. But hardy souls pushed ahead and great gains have been made! I am confident that the progress of guidance in the elementary school will be more rapid and more fruitful than was true of the guidance movement in the secondary schools.

(This address was delivered on November 30, at the 69th Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools in the First General Session—Cooperative Program in Elementary Education.) Taken from: *Kentucky Guidance Guidepost*, December, 1964.

THE ELEMENTARY COUNSELOR AS PERCEIVED BY ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

WILLIAM P. McDOUGALL, HENRY M. REITAN

The models suggested for elementary school guidance programs have been strikingly devoid of the opinions of elementary school administrators. While we in the profession may feel that our concept of the functions of such programs is valid it is also clear that the actual role that elementary guidance people will be playing is one largely construed by elementary school administrators. It would appear highly desirable that those concerned with elementary school guidance programs be aware of the opinions of these school leaders.

The present survey was conducted in the states of Idaho, Oregon, and Washington to sample the perceptions of elementary school principals in the three states. Two hundred and forty-three questionnaires were mailed and the final number and per cent return are as follows: Idaho, 25 and 67.7 per cent; Oregon, 59 and 67.0 per cent; Washington, 85 and 72.0 per cent. The total usable returns from three states numbered 169 or 69.5 per cent. Inspection of the returns from the three states revealed no major differences in patterns of responses; therefore, the data are reported and analyzed as a single sample.

Training and Background Experience

The initial section of the survey was concerned with the training and background of counselors as perceived by principals. The coursework

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was arbitrarily divided into four training areas: psychology, counseling and guidance, professional education, and selected related discipline areas.

Background experience other than formal coursework was arbitrarily classified into work experience in the school and work experience outside of school. The respondents were asked to rate courses and work experiences on a five-point scale ranging from necessary to undesirable.

For ease of interpretation, the responses to individual items were converted to percentages and rounded to the nearest per cent. Due to item omissions by some respondents the number of responses for individual items varied from 166 to 169.

Coursework

The principals' opinions regarding background in psychology appears in TABLE 1. Inspection reveals that over two thirds of the responding principals regarded child psychology and psychology of learning as necessary areas of psychological training. Of lesser importance, but still considered necessary by approximately half of the reporting principals was coursework in individual differences, adolescent psychology, psychology of personality, and psychology of adjustment. Courses in abnormal and clinical psychology were not considered necessary by a large

TABLE 1

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Certain Areas of Psychology in Counselor Training

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Child psychology	79	17	4		
Psychology of learning	70	20	10	1	
Individual differences	58	25	17	1	
Adolescent psychology	52	31	14	3	
Psychology of personality	48	35	17	1	
Psychology of adjustment	45	39	15	1	
Abnormal psychology	30	34	32	3	
Clinical psychology	15	29	41	15	

per cent of the respondents, but were considered as highly desirable or desirable by a majority.

Principals' reactions to the need for training in counseling and guidance courses are reported in TABLE 2.

TABLE 2

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Certain Counseling and Guidance Courses in Counselor Training

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Principles of guidance	78	15	6	1	
Individual testing	64	23	12	1	
Group testing and measurement	59	25	14	1	
Counseling theory	50	31	17	2	
Counseling practicum or internship	37	39	21	3	
Group guidance	33	40	21	5	
Organization and administration of guidance	33	31	31	4	
Occupational information	8	16	40	36	

Fifty per cent or more of the elementary principals regarded coursework in principles of guidance, individual testing, group tests and measurements, and counseling theory as necessary. Counseling practicum, group guidance, and organization and administration of guidance were regarded as necessary or highly desirable by a majority of the respondents. While occupational information was listed as desirable or highly desirable by a majority of the principals, 36 per cent indicated it would make little contribution to the training of elementary counselors.

TABLE 3 contains principals' appraisals of the need for training in various professional education courses.

Inspection of these data reveals that a majority of principals consider coursework in educational psychology as necessary. Educational philosophy, education of the gifted, and education of the mentally retarded

TABLE 3

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Certain Professional Education Courses in Counselor Training

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Educational psychology	57	27	14	2	
Educational philosophy	40	25	30	5	1
Remedial reading	22	22	42	14	
Curriculum development	19	25	47	9	
Methods of research	19	31	36	14	
Education of the gifted	19	43	33	4	
Statistics	18	30	38	14	1
Education of the mentally retarded	17	36	39	8	
Education of the physically handicapped	13	35	44	8	1
Audio-visual	10	22	40	27	
Elementary school administration	10	23	45	21	1

were viewed by a majority as necessary or highly desirable. Forty-four to 50 per cent of the respondents considered methods of research, statistics, remedial reading, and curriculum development as necessary or highly desirable. Audio-visual and elementary school administration courses were listed by over 20 per cent of the principals as making little contribution.

The reactions of elementary principals to course training in some related disciplines outside of education and psychology are recorded in TABLE 4.

A majority of principals felt that coursework in juvenile delinquency, social case work, speech, and anthropology was highly desirable or desirable. However, 35 per cent felt that anthropology would make little contribution to training for elementary counselors. An opportunity was also provided for principals to list other related discipline areas which they considered important to elementary counselor training. No other areas were mentioned.

TABLE 4

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Certain Related Discipline Areas in Counselor Training

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Juvenile delinquency	19	35	44	2	
Social case work	16	32	42	10	1
Speech correction	10	22	48	19	1
Anthropology	4	19	40	35	3

Background Experience

The principals' appraisal of the need for various kinds of background work experience in the school appears in TABLE 5.

Inspection of the data in TABLE 5 reveals that 94 per cent of responding principals felt that teaching experience at the elementary level was either necessary or highly desirable. Previous experience as a remedial teacher or an elementary administrator or supervisor was considered

TABLE 5

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Various Kinds of Background Work Experience in the School

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Elementary teaching	68	26	6		
Public school teaching any level	49	27	21	3	
Special remedial teaching	5	29	52	13	
Elementary supervision	4	22	44	30	
Elementary administration	2	20	42	36	

desirable or highly desirable by a majority; however, previous experience in the latter two categories was felt to make little contribution to the training of counselors by approximately one third of the respondents.

Reactions to the need for certain kinds of work experience outside the school is reported in TABLE 6.

TABLE 6

Elementary Principals' Opinions Concerning the Relative Importance of Various Kinds of Work Experience Outside the School

	Percentage of Response				
	Necessary	*Highly Desirable*	*Desirable*	*Would Make Little Contribution*	*Undesirable*
Manual labor	4	12	44	39	2
Social service work	4	33	52	11	
Business or industrial work	1	18	46	34	1

Inspection of the data in TABLE 6 indicates that work experience other than teaching was regarded as necessary by less than five per cent of the principals. Previous work experience in the social service was regarded as desirable or highly desirable by the largest number. Though manual labor or work in business or industry was considered desirable or highly desirable by a majority it was also felt by more than a third to make little contribution.

Functions of the Elementary School Counselor

The functions which were chosen for inclusion in this section of the questionnaire were the usual functions of the guidance counselor as noted in the guidance literature as well as duties often performed in the name of guidance. The respondents were asked to rate each item on a four-point continuum ranging from a very important function of the elementary counselor to not a function of the counselor. The number of responses to individual items in this section of the survey ranged from 165 to 169.

TABLE 7 includes functions of elementary counselors considered most important by responding elementary principals.

The four functions rated as being very important by the most respondents are all concerned with student counseling and parent consultation. Also listed by a majority are functions concerned with identification of special talents and problems, assistance of teacher in testing and appraisal, and interpretation to the community of the guidance program. In all of the above categories, 90 per cent or more of the elementary principals listed these functions as very important or important.

Functions considered highly important by 25 to 50 per cent of responding principals appear in TABLE 8.

Over 80 per cent of the respondents included: providing leadership for school in-service training; interpreting test data to students; and planning the testing program as very important or important functions. Over 80 per cent also included group guidance and the providing and

TABLE 7

Counselor Functions Considered Very Important by A Majority of Elementary Principals

	Percentage of Response			
	Very Important	*Important*	*Limited*	*Not a Function*
Counseling individually students with personal & social problems	83	15	2	
Consulting with parents concerning their children's problems	79	18	3	
Counseling individually students with academic & educational problems	77	21	2	
Counseling children with severe discipline problems	74	16	8	2
Identifying students with special talents & special problems	61	31	8	1
Assisting teachers in the area of testing & appraisal tech.	54	38	7	1
Interpreting the guidance program to the community	55	35	10	1

TABLE 8

Counselor Functions Considered as Very Important by 25 Per Cent to 50 Per Cent of Elementary Principals

	Percentage of Response			
	Very Important	*Important*	*Limited*	*Not a Function*
Providing leadership for the school in-service training program in guidance	50	39	11	1
Interpreting appraisal and test data to students	45	39	14	4
Planning the testing program	44	39	13	4
Visiting parents in their homes	36	36	25	3
Acting as a liaison with community referral agencies	35	48	16	1
Administering the testing program	35	41	20	4
Providing and editing guidance material for staff and students	30	51	18	1
Assessing student personality through the use of projective techniques	29	44	23	4
Organizing and carrying out orientation programs	25	43	29	3
Carrying on group guidance activities	27	55	18	

editing of guidance material in these categories; however, these two functions were listed by a majority as being important rather than very important.

Over 25 per cent felt that home visitation, student assessment using projective techniques, and the organization and implementation of orientation programs were either a limited function or not a function of elementary counselors.

Counselor functions considered as very important by fewer than 25 per cent of the principals appear in TABLE 9.

Over 80 per cent of the reporting principals felt that keeping attendance records, acting as a disciplinarian and teaching remedial classes were limited functions or not functions of the counselor. Only two of the categories in TABLE 9 were listed as important or very important

TABLE 9

Counselor Functions Considered Very Important by Less Than 25 Per Cent of Elementary Principals

	Percentage of Response			
	Very Important	*Important*	*Limited*	*Not a Function*
Assisting in planning the curriculum	18	44	30	8
Conducting community research on guidance problems	17	42	37	3
Providing vocational and occupational information to students	10	23	52	14
Administering discipline	8	10	23	60
Helping organize student activities	7	35	41	17
Teaching remedial reading	4	14	35	47
Keeping attendance records	3	12	22	63

functions by a majority of the responding principals. These include assisting in curriculum planning and conducting guidance research in the community.

Issues and Problems

Principals were asked to respond to some selected issues and problems related to elementary school guidance practices. The areas explored were not intended to be exhaustive. The topics chosen were those frequently encountered in guidance literature and discussion.

Inspection of the data in TABLE 10 indicates that the majority of responding principals favor the viewpoint that elementary guidance be concerned with specialized services to individual pupils rather than general curriculum guidance for all pupils. Preference is also expressed by the majority for personnel engaged in full-time guidance rather than a combination of part-time teaching and guidance duties. Seventy-seven per cent of the responding principals favored special certification for elementary guidance personnel and a majority also favored additional salary beyond the teaching salary schedule.

The reaction of the principals was solicited regarding problems in establishing elementary guidance programs. The most frequently mentioned problems were in the areas of program, finance, gaining school and community acceptance for the guidance program, and obtaining adequately trained elementary guidance personnel.

Principals expressed their judgment concerning the major differences between elementary and secondary school guidance. Areas mentioned most often were the greater emphasis on the preventative aspects of guidance at the elementary level; the lesser need for occupational and vocational guidance in the elementary school; the need for greater parental involvement at the elementary level; and the need for understanding developmental problems peculiar to childhood and preadolescence.

TABLE 10

Elementary Principals' Opinions on Selected Issues in Guidance

Issue	*Percentage of Affirmative Response*
Should elementary guidance emphasize special services to individual students as compared with general curriculum for all students	66
Should elementary guidance personnel be assigned to full-time guidance activities as compared with part-time teaching duties	60
Should elementary guidance personnel have special certification	77
Should elementary guidance personnel receive additional salary above teacher's salary schedules	60

Implications of the Survey

1. Principals' perceptions of the nature of the elementary school counselors' training indicate that extensive coursework in the areas of psychology and counseling and guidance are needed. This implies that either the traditional one-year training programs need to be expanded to a longer period of time or that present traditional courses give way to more integrated and combined learning activities.

2. An area of discrepancy noted in this survey was that responding principals placed relatively less importance on practicum or internship training than on other coursework in counseling. Such findings seem to suggest that while principals prefer a trained counselor many do not see the need for supervised practice which has been a traditional part

of such training. Such results may merely indicate a lack of understanding of terminology and a need for better communication between the counseling profession and the public school administrators.

3. A large majority of the responding principals viewed elementary teaching experience as a prerequisite for counseling. This implies that the principals perceive the entering counselor as emerging from the teaching population and that most principals regard teaching experience as a vital part of the elementary counselors' preparation.

4. The results of the survey indicate that the majority of principals favor well-trained elementary school counselors. Consistent with this view, they also favor certification and additional compensation for the elementary school counselor. An implication that may be drawn is that principals view the job of the elementary school counselor as vital in the educational program of the elementary school.

THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITIES IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

ROBERT T. DEVRIES

Guidance in the elementary school is an integral part of the total educational process. It is concerned with assessing the general and specific needs, achievements, interests, and abilities of all students and with arranging educational experiences based on this assessment to help individuals and groups of students to develop their maximum potentialities.

In an effective elementary school guidance program, there is maximum cooperation and communication among all personnel who have contacts with students, whether they be school, community, or home centered. The elementary school principal assumes full responsibility for the guidance program within his school, with his primary function being to coordinate the efforts of all personnel who help students.

Essentially, the principal has three major roles in the guidance program, each of which involves both procedural and substantive matters. This article will discuss these three areas of the principal's responsibility.

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The Administrative Role

Coordinating and clarifying the various components of the local school guidance program. Although the focal point of the elementary school guidance program must be in the classroom, with the teacher playing the central and critical role, the success of a school's effort depends on comprehensive planning and coordination. In this regard, the principal has the paramount role. He must provide leadership for the guidance efforts of the school teaching staff and of a team of specialists skilled in diagnostic and therapeutic techniques for educational programing and student adjustment.

Frequently, these specialists, along with selected members of the teaching staff, are organized into a school guidance team. This team approach to school guidance problems can be a most effective technique in bringing the capabilities and interests of many people to bear on problems. At times, the school team may be augmented by members of the community at large.

Each of the members of the school guidance team can fulfill a significant role, as indicated in the following brief statements of their major areas of concern.

- Teacher: The classroom teacher is the point of convergence for a functional guidance program. Because of his close, daily contact with students, his knowledge of their capabilities and differences, and his continuing responsibilities for interpreting test results and conferring with parents, the teacher is able to provide the team with a reservoir of substantive information requisite to a progressive guidance program. Obversely, the teacher is the means through which programs designed to assist in the solution of guidance problems are implemented.
- Counselor: The counselor, trained and experienced in the areas of psychology and psychometry, makes individual studies of students who have special needs in order to assist them in making more satisfactory social or academic adjustments in school.
- Nurse and physician: Health personnel serve in a dual capacity: one, to identify defects which conceivably could or do impede the students' maximum development; and two, to assist students to establish suitable health practices conducive to a rewarding school career.
- Curriculum specialists: In conjunction with other members of the school guidance team, curriculum specialists analyze and assess results of standardized tests — both intelligence and achievement — with a view to modifying educational programing for individual students and for groups of students.

- Social work and welfare-attendance personnel: Personnel assigned in this area are primarily concerned with those adjustment difficulties of students manifested by irregular school attendance and with problems which may be manifested in school but which are essentially the outgrowth of home or community conditions. Their competencies are most evident in the area of referral to and coordination with community agencies.

Working cooperatively on individual and group problems, the school guidance team seeks to plan educational experiences which will provide each student the optimum degree of opportunity. In planning these experiences, the team utilizes all the relevant knowledge available. Particular emphasis is given to acquiring an understanding of family background and youth behavioral patterns and of the community adjacent to the school, including such factors as general socio-economic level, extent of population mobility, local cultural patterns and traditions, housing and health conditions, and recreational and welfare facilities.

The team may work together in a variety of patterns. Monthly meetings are perhaps a common practice. In the interim, designated responsibilities are coordinated by the principal.

Assigning, in conjunction with specialists, students requiring special programs. A significant area of operation for the principal is the assignment of students to atypical programs. This is usually effected after consultation with appropriate members of the school guidance team. Representative of special programs to which students might be assigned are: remedial reading, speech therapy, corrective physical education, and classes for the more capable, blind and visually handicapped, deaf and orally handicapped, physically handicapped, educable mentally retarded, trainable mentally retarded, and emotionally handicapped.

Recording and interpreting significant information concerning students. The principal provides leadership to the team and the school staff in compiling and recording information about pupils. In doing this, he utilizes cumulative record cards, family and student questionnaires, health records, results of standardized group and individually administered intelligence and achievement tests, anecdotal records, examples of student work, check lists and scales, sociometric techniques, and conferences.

Involving all personnel assigned to his school, the principal makes provision for the interpretation of information about studies. He stresses with the school staff and the guidance team the need to utilize accurate and objective data, to take a positive approach and capitalize on strengths, to interpret test results in relative terms rather than in exact numbers because of the questionable reliability of many testing devices, and to emphasize the complete setting rather than minutiae.

Maintaining student records and accounting. To facilitate accessibility and organization of student records, the principal arranges with the school secretarial staff for efficient filing of records. Information must be readily accessible and functionally recorded.

The Supervisory Role

Providing for continuous evaluation and appraisal. Since guidance is an integral part of the educational process, it is neither easy nor appropriate to evaluate guidance apart from the total program. Evaluation of school guidance services has two major aspects: one, evaluating student growth academically, which necessarily includes an analysis of test results, class work, peer reaction, and observation; and two, assessing the appropriateness of guidance practices and procedures.

School personnel and, more specifically, members of the school guidance team must constantly assess the procedures and practices they are employing. The principal should lead in this evaluative process. He must critically assess his own contribution in relation to the goals of the school guidance program and guide the staff to do the same.

Assisting in providing curriculum experiences to meet identified needs. In connection with this area, the principal is concerned with grouping for instructional purposes in the classroom and organization of classes on a school-wide basis.

In establishing curriculum experiences to meet identified needs as determined by members of the guidance team and of the school staff, several factors are important: the emotional climate in the classrooms, basic room-school organization, and the selection of appropriate instructional materials. These factors must be evaluated in relation to student needs, and curriculum experiences must be programed accordingly. Frequently, such techniques as cluster grouping within a room, team teaching, departmentalization, and programed learning are employed.

Assisting school personnel with specific cases. In instances where individual students have special needs, the principal directs efforts not only to identify these needs but also to plan appropriate opportunities for student adjustment. If the student requires assignment to a special class, this is effected after consultation with the specialist or specialists concerned, or as a result of consultation with the school guidance team. In the event the child is capable of realizing success in a regular classroom situation, provision must then be made within his classroom to provide opportunities for adjustment. The principal initiates action to do this.

In addition, the principal continuously counsels with students, parents, and other members of the community in an endeavor to assist individual students to make a more satisfactory adjustment.

The Public Relations Role

Interpreting the guidance program to the community. Guidance of students is most beneficial when the efforts of home, school, and community are coordinated. Each of these institutions has a significant contribution to render to the school guidance program.

The school can effectively utilize parent information regarding a student's health and behavioral patterns, including interests, attitudes, relationships with the family, and behavior in his home milieu. The school, in turn, can provide the parent and the community with information concerning achievement, citizenship, effectiveness in the school setting and assistance needed from other school-centered and community agencies in meeting special problems.

The school can draw on the community for health and welfare services as well as utilize facilities for educational, recreational, and character building activities.

The principal of the elementary school must assume the initiative in this area. His position as a recognized leader in the community and in the school enables him to initiate, organize, and direct the experiences students can have both in and out of school.

Conducting and coordinating parent and study conferences. Through a variety of means, the principal can involve parents and community groups in a number of activities designed to increase their understanding of and participation in the school guidance program. Among these means are open house programs, parent study groups, adult and parent education classes, and classroom visitations. Teachers, too, play a significant role in informing the community and parents through the reporting of student progress and parent-teacher conferences.

The need for an effective guidance program in the elementary school cannot be understated. Vast technological and economic changes and upheavals in traditional political, social, and cultural patterns have confronted students with problems they cannot solve unaided and alone. The school must assume a primary role in assisting students to overcome their problems and to develop their maximum potential.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE: THE CONSULTANT

LOUISE OMWAKE ECKERSON, HYRUM M. SMITH

Fifty years ago, the school boy's world was small, and man remained in it. Cities were communities in which people had roots and knew each other, and the streets were safe at night. Jobs were plentiful, the schools were uncrowded, the dullard dropped by the wayside, and teachers could teach those who wished to learn.

Now, 50 years later, the child in elementary school begins to feel adult pressures, and youth problems relating to college admission as well as underachievement, dropouts, and delinquency. The times demand that children be prepared to meet the challenge of a forward-looking society, that they be equipped in education, physical health, and emotional stability to work at jobs which do not yet exist. Guidance, starting in the early school years and continuing at least throughout school is a partial solution to the gigantic problem of preparing youth for the unknown future.

The elementary school guidance movement, focused on facilitating a sound educational foundation in the child's early years, is spreading throughout the country. It has gained momentum – even without financial encouragement from the National Defense Education Act, which has accelerated guidance in secondary schools. Its existence is just beginning to be recognized by representation at the State level, although State certification rarely makes any distinction between the qualifications required for guidance personnel in elementary and secondary schools. Only a few colleges and universities have initiated graduate programs specifically tailored to prepare the guidance consultant who works with young children.

The guidance movement for children in the lower grades has received its impetus from local educators and parents who believe that professional assistance given to the child at an early age will prevent his developing serious problems later. Across the country, the aim of early guidance is summed up in two words, "identification and prevention."

A review of some outstanding programs in elementary schools suggests the following definition: Guidance in the elementary school assists *all* children directly, and indirectly through their teachers and parents, in making maximum use of their abilities for their own development and for the good of society. The emphasis is on the early recognition

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of intellectual, emotional, social, and physical strengths and weaknesses, on the developing of talents, on the prevention of conditions which interfere with learning, and on the early use of available resources to meet the needs of children.

Community planning for "identification and prevention" has centered attention on designating the services most needed within a school, and then looking for the person with education and experience to perform those services. Many communities have chosen an elementary school teacher who seemed to possess the necessary insight and encouraged him to supplement his education with courses relating to guidance and, subsequently, to assume the role of guidance consultant. Usually, the only graduate program available to him was designed as preparation for guidance work and counseling with adolescent students whose problems were conceived to be largely educational and vocational.

The elementary school child's needs do not call for emphasis on educational and vocational counseling; few of these youngsters are mature enough to make valid decisions for themselves by means of the counseling interview, nor are they concerned with choices of courses or vocations. The problems of grade-school pupils are caused by conditions which interfere with learning in school, and these may be attributed to tensions in the home, physical defects or poor health, poor social relations, emotional blocks, and intellectual limitations, as well as unsatisfactory methods of instruction and pupil-teacher relations. What, then, should be the qualifications of a guidance consultant who would be able to identify early signs of trouble in a child and get remedial help for him?

There is no simple answer, for children have many kinds of problems. For example, if a child's reading problem is caused by faulty reading techniques, perhaps a former teacher in the primary grades with courses in guidance and remedial reading might be highly qualified to handle it. If, however, his reading difficulty is caused by emotional stress in his home or lack of social adjustment, or by a visual defect or his physical condition, a specialist in another field might possess the requisite knowledge and understanding to identify the source of trouble and take steps toward helping him.

In addition to poor readers, elementary school classrooms hold children who are retarded, aggressive, withdrawn, unloved, undernourished, overweight, defective in speech and hearing, and who have a host of other limitations. Classrooms also hold gifted and talented children whose abilities are not recognized or challenged, and whose mediocre performance is accepted at home and at school. What qualifications should the consultant have to work with these children?

The function of the guidance consultant, dictated by the varied needs of children, raises the question: are guidance services in elementary schools developing as a new discipline? If guidance functions at this level are not teacher functions, nor the functions of the high school counselor, then it is possible that the guidance of young school children may be moving in the direction of a new discipline requiring a new focus on professional preparation. And if so, what should be emphasized?

Some educators believe that early guidance is an extension of the elementary school teacher's job and that consequently only a person with teaching experience can effectively work with teachers in the child's behalf. And some believe that no essential difference exists in the function of guidance personnel at the elementary and secondary school levels. Others maintain that guidance of elementary school children requires the knowledge, insight, and techniques possessed by the school psychologist, school social worker, clinical psychologist, psychiatric social worker, or school nurse.

The profusion of specialists nominated for the post of being responsible for the guidance of grade-school children attests to a diversity of opinion, both on problems and on remedies. Each specialist sees the problems which children bring into the classroom, or develop there, as they pertain to his branch of knowledge. Also, each specialist who attempts to diagnose a difficulty may be limited to some extent in his grasp of those causal factors which lie outside of his particular field. Each has depth in the knowledge and techniques of his own discipline; each has breadth without depth in some aspects of allied disciplines. Which professional emphasis with what techniques will be most effective in helping children with their problems is a debatable question. Since the answer awaits clarifying evidence, it seems practical to encourage experimentation and evaluation of pilot programs before standardizing guidance services and the qualifications for guidance personnel in elementary schools.

In some States specialists who have different professional titles but whose services overlap are working in elementary school guidance programs. In California and Connecticut, for instance, schools recognize the contributions of graduate preparation in guidance, psychology, and social work by using persons with professional training in these fields in their guidance programs. A pamphlet published by the Connecticut State Department of Education delineates the similarities and dissimilarities in the preparation and roles of the guidance consultant (and counselor at the secondary level), the school social worker, and the school psychologist. It has this to say of the common aspects of their functions:

> a. Each tries to help pupils to utilize their abilities more fully, to overcome problems, to understand themselves more clearly, and to make better progress in school. . . . As a part of this help, each studies pupils' backgrounds, abilities, and psychological forces. Each works with the pupil individually or may seek special help for him from others.
>
> b. Each renders service in cooperation with the school staff. The teacher has the major educational responsibility for each pupil; the social worker, psychologist, and counselor are concerned with facilitating the work of the teacher. . . .
>
> c. Each develops and maintains information and records about pupils. . . .
>
> d. Each has a real interest in research. . . .
>
> e. Each of the three professions shares with other school personnel a responsibility for working with parents and community groups to facilitate the progress of individual children and also to interpret the work of the school. . . .[1]

The pamphlet answers the question: What are the distinctive emphases of the work of each of the three professions? "The *social worker* has emphasized work with pupils who have, or appear likely to have, serious problems of school adjustment which also involve aspects of social or emotional adjustment. These problems often can be more successfully solved if home or other community forces are utilized to help and the social worker has a major role in work with both parents and community social agencies. . . . The *psychologist* has emphasized work with pupils who have serious learning or behavior difficulties due to mental, physical, or emotional handicaps and for whom an intensive clinical psychological diagnosis is sought by the school. . . . The *counselor* has emphasized work with all pupils in the school on educational . . . and personal problems which are common among the age groups with which he is working."

Writing about elementary school guidance services, Raymond Patouillet says: "The school guidance worker (*counselor, psychologist, visiting teacher,* [now generally called social worker]) works primarily with and through teachers as well as with parents and the principal, serving as consultant and resource person to them. The guidance person works with children through the class setting, although individual conferences with parents and children are held if referral to an outside agency is indicated or if individual testing or interviewing is agreed upon by the teacher and guidance person. I have grouped counselors, psychologists, and visiting teachers together under the general heading of guidance worker because I see an increasing number of similarities and a decreasing number of differences among their respective roles."[2]

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[1] *The Team Approach in Pupil Personnel Services,* Connecticut State Deparment of Education, pp. 36-38. Hartford, 1955.

In discussing the role of the elementary school guidance consultant, Patouillet adds: "The term counselor therefore no longer adequately describes his function if we think of counseling as a one-to-one relationship. . . . The guidance worker . . . is essentially a consultant . . . in human relations who involves in a cooperative enterprise all those who affect the development of the child."

Patouillet's proposal for meeting the personnel needs of elementary school guidance programs is twofold: (1) Utilization of persons who have already completed programs in guidance, psychology, or social work; and (2) a 2-year graduate program which cuts across the areas of guidance, psychology, and social work. His proposals are not intended to eliminate the need for and use of itinerant school psychologists and school social workers who work intensively with children on a referral basis.

Both the Connecticut pamphlet and Patouillet recognize common functions belonging to three disciplines which are important to the guidance of young children. This idea presents a challenge to determine through experimentation and research the best procedures for selecting and preparing persons to fill children's needs for guidance.

The consideration of guidance personnel recruited from fields other than teaching was recommended by the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth:

> That all states require the certification of guidance counselors and other specialized personnel. That the qualifications for certification be continually reviewed and strengthened in accordance with the latest research findings in the field; and *that they recognize and give credit to appropriate training and work experience in lieu of classroom teaching.*[3] [Italics are ours.]

A program designed to serve in lieu of classroom teaching might resemble an internship required by the University of Michigan in preparing school psychologists. Such an internship could be planned to familiarize both social workers and psychologists with the practices and problems of teachers and children at the elementary school level. William Clark Trow describes the internship:

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[2] Raymond Patouillet, "Organizing for Guidance in the Elementary School," *Teachers College Record*, p. 435. New York, Columbia University, May 1957.

[3] *Recommendations, Composite Report of Forum Findings*, Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, p. 26. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960.

> All students preparing to become school psychologists will enroll for a practicum requiring three hours a day for a minimum of one semester in the University School. During this time under the guidance of a special supervisor they will attend a number of different grades and classes ranging from the kindergarten through grade 12, participate in instructional as well as measurement and guidance activities, and study and follow through on individual instructional and adjustment problem cases. We believe that this range of experience will be even more valuable than that of teaching a particular grade or subject for a year or two.[4]

Such an internship could give social workers and psychologists a first-hand knowledge of elementary schools. Just as a teacher gains his understanding of children and schools by his course in practice teaching, the psychologist and social worker could supplement their formal preparation with experiences provided by an elementary school internship. This supervised internship might well give them a broader understanding of children of all ages than they would gain from 3 years of teaching experiences in the sixth or the first grade.

Universities are beginning to organize graduate programs to prepare guidance consultants for elementary schools. Among them is Teachers College, Columbia University, which offers 1-year, 2-year, and 3-year programs. It recommends the 2-year sequence for those who will work on a local elementary school staff. It is inevitable that more graduate schools will specify courses to prepare elementary school teachers, and perhaps persons with undergraduate majors in behavioral sciences, for guidance in elementary schools.

Hill and Nitzschke report information given by 154 directors of master's degree programs recommended for elementary school guidance personnel. They conclude:

> Preparation programs for guidance workers in elementary schools are as yet not well-defined. Some of these programs make little, if any, differentiation between preparation for the elementary school and preparation for the secondary school. Very few universities have clearly planned programs for the preparation of guidance workers in elementary schools . . . It would seem that the time is at hand for leaders

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[4] William Clark Trow, "Diagnostician, EdS, and PhD Programs for School Psychologists in Michigan," *American Psychologist*, p. 84-85, 1333 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., American Psychological Association, Inc., February 1961.

in elementary education and in guidance to combine their judgments to formulate a clearer definition of "elementary school guidance."[5]

Who should be selected and how he should be prepared to achieve the goals of elementary school guidance may vary from school to school because the problems of large numbers of children differ from community to community – from slums to suburbs, from industrial to agricultural areas, from native to foreign culture groups. Moreover, a school's need for guidance services varies in proportion to the available services of social workers and psychologists. Each school, before employing a specialist, should therefore analyze the problems of its student body and select the person whose education and experience prepare him to offer the required services, regardless of his title.

When school social workers and school psychologists are selected as guidance consultants, they may wish to retain their identity in name. However, many people have the mistaken belief that social workers help only the poor, and that psychologists work only with the unbalanced. For this reason, it might serve the purposes of public acceptance as well as uniformity if such noninstructional specialists, engaged in helping children learn in school, were known by a single title such as counselor, child consultant, or guidance consultant. (The term *guidance consultant* is used here to differentiate between guidance personnel in the elementary school and counselors in the secondary school, and to indicate the major function of the former – which is usually designated as consulting with teachers and parents.)

It seems most expedient at this time to suggest tentative procedures without commitment to any one. Standardizing the qualifications now for guidance personnel in elemenary schools without clear evidence from research that persons with those qualifications make the best guidance consultants for all schools may jeopardize the program by limiting its scope and quality. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered to encourage experimentation in the selection and graduate preparation of guidance consultants:

1. That the candidate's background be rich in liberal arts with the undergraduate major in elementary education, or perhaps in psychology, sociology, or related areas.
2. That the candidate be required to have had several years' employment in a related field in a school, clinic, or comparable agency.

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[5] George E. Hill and Dale F. Nitzschke, "Preparation Programs in Elementary School Guidance," *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, p. 155-159. 1605 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington 9, D.C., American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc., October 1961.

In such work, through experiences in living, he gains background and maturity, both necessary qualifications of a guidance consultant. Some work experience with adults is also desirable.

3. That flexibility characterize the planning of a graduate student's program. It should not be assumed that every candidate for a degree in elementary school guidance has had the same background and needs the same courses. An appraisal of the candidate's academic history and experience may reveal that he is familiar with some information, concepts, and techniques important in work of the guidance consultant. An individualized graduate program also makes it possible for a prospective guidance consultant to take courses to meet special needs of a particular school in which he expects to be employed.

4. That the preparation for guidance consultants be specifically tailored to the functions of elementary school guidance, which may be telescoped and expressed for convenience, as "identification and prevention." The professional knowledge and techniques required in these functions are found in such fields as elementary school education, guidance, psychology, social work, and health. Therefore, professional preparation may well include these fields.

5. That a comprehensive and extensive internship in elementary school guidance be accepted in lieu of teaching experience.

6. That appropriate professional experience in working with children be accepted in lieu of teaching experience.

7. That the candidate qualify in personality characteristics. It is difficult to evaluate objectively the quality of personality that can reach and assist children and consult with adults who work with children. With an awareness of traits to be sought, however, an approach might be made to a subjective evaluation of personality.

A promising candidate may be described in these terms: He is a person who enjoys helping others and who, by responding sensitively, is able to produce an atmosphere of mutual liking and respect with both children and adults. His natural endowment and education give him significant insight into the feeling and thinking of people, especially children, and an appreciation of their values, which may differ from his own. He is able to help parents and teachers understand the child who needs to belong or who needs to be alone; to encourage, rather than stifle, those tendencies that lead to creative thinking and to respect both aras of conformity and areas of individuality.

Education anticipates strides in communicating a vast increase of knowledge to students through the use of programmed instruction (teaching machines), airborne television, language laboratory equipment, and other new teaching equipment and teaching techniques. It is logical to expect the schools to meet the bombardment of knowledge with new techniques and personnel. The most efficient teacher cannot do the job that the times demand and also serve as guidance consultant as well as psychologist and social worker. These persons are needed by the significant number of children who have major problems and by the much larger number of children who occasionally need specialized assistance. In addition, all children profit indirectly from the continuous presence of a guidance consultant who helps teachers understand the perplexing phases of a normal child's development and the danger signals of trouble.

The teacher will continue to be the person who works most closely with each child. He will have the opportunity to teach children who are ready to learn when deterrents to learning have been reduced through the services of guidance consultants and other pupil personnel.

Guidance consultants are at the center of guidance programs in elementary schools. Patterns of selection and preparation of these persons now are varied. As the movement grows, experimentation and evaluation should determine the preparation which can contribute most effectively to the needs of children. In the meantime, we urge schools to use an eclectic approach in organizing elementary school guidance programs within pupil personnel services to the end that each child shall benefit from a cooperative effort of all professional personnel.

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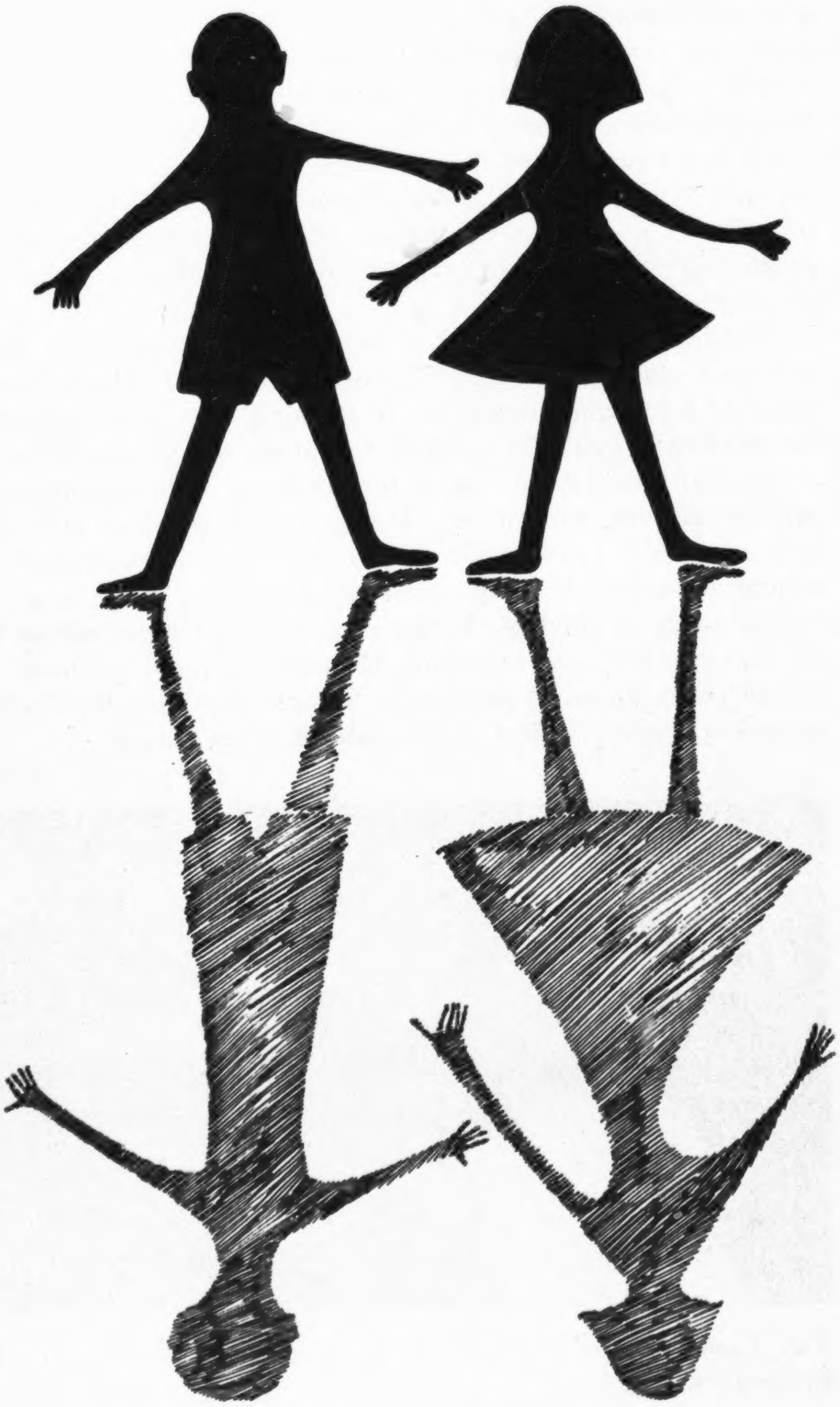
THE LIBRARIAN — A HELPFUL RESOURCE PERSON FOR OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION



PART 3

Exploration of Occupations at the Elementary School Level

The 1965 edition of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* lists over thirty-eight thousand different jobs persons pursue for their livelihood. America's rapid economic growth and technological advances, coupled with new employment opportunities, have sharpened our awareness of how heavily this nation's future progress depends on proper selection and placement of persons who seek work. According to Goldie Ruth Kaback, conditions of automation, work and leisure of the present day have many implications for elementary education. In her article she discusses the effect new technological and scientific advances will have on the family, child and education. Her concern resulted in a discussion of what the school can do. This position is further developed in her second paper entitled, "Occupational Information for Groups of Elementary School Children." Specific activities are suggested for third-, fourth-, fifth- and sixth-grade students.

Based on a careful review and synthesis of the literature related to vocational guidance, Dr. Dugald S. Arbuckle states:

> Occupational information has a claim to a place in the elementary school curriculum just as any other information and knowledge. Like any other information, however, it is important only to the extent that a teacher or counselor is able to use it to help a child become involved in the learning process.

This carefully documented paper forms a basis for incorporating occupational information into elementary school programs.

Dr. W. Wesley Tennyson, past president of the National Vocational Guidance Association and Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Minnesota, and Lawrence P. Monnens, Counselor of Kenai City School District, Kenai, Alaska, conducted a study to determine how the world of work is presented to youngsters through their elementary reading texts. Answers were sought to three specific questions: (1) How adequate is the coverage given in the world of work? (2) To what extent are certain occupational areas emphasized? (3) Do the several reading series vary in their occupational emphasis? The critical analysis report on the elementary school reading series of six well-known publishing companies provides elementary school counselors and teachers with the kind of information which can be developed and expanded.

What attitudes are held toward the world of work by elementary school pupils? John A. Wellington and Nan Olechowski investigated this problem, and their findings suggest ten conclusions. All who are involved in the education of elementary-age children should be aware of the important implications made by the authors regarding this important aspect of the total development of a child.

Dr. Eli Ginsberg theorizes that the process of occupational choice can be analyzed in three periods: fantasy choice before eleven years of age, tentative choices between eleven and seventeen years of age and realistic choices between seventeen and young adulthood when the choice is finally crystallized. Donald A. Davis, Nellie Hogan and Judie Strouf investigated the validity of certain parts of this theory of occupational choice and raised various questions: Do twelve-year olds make more tentative choices than fantasy ones? Are these choices a function of age only or are such factors as socio-economic environment, sex, race, intelligence and reading retardation influential? Interestingly enough, their findings, on the whole, seem to substantiate Ginberg's theory of occupational choice for twelve-year-old children.

A child's concept of occupational prestige was studied by Barbara Gunn, Counselor at Rim of the World Schools, Lake Arrowhead, California. How a child perceives the world of work, and the value he places on the various areas of human endeavor have educational and guidance implications. This study, conducted in Palo Alto, California, describes perceptions of boys from grades one through twelve regarding their concepts of occupational prestige.

A study which parallels the Gunn research was conducted by Dale D. Simmons, Assistant Professor of Psychology and Counselor at Oregon State University. The investigation was done in Corvallis, Oregon, as part of his doctoral dissertation. Dr. Simmons studied elementary children's rankings of occupations in terms of prestige. Similar studies conducted locally would be of value to the elementary school counselor in the school(s) in which he is employed.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Dugald S. Arbuckle

At first sight, this appears to be a rather dull and pointless topic; a topic about which a person could write little. I could, of course, indicate that we must integrate occupational information into the elementary school curriculum, that teachers must be less occupationally naive, that textbooks should be more occupationally realistic, and that we need to have work experiences at the elementary level so that children may learn that it is just as honorable to be a garbage man as it is to be a teacher, even though no teachers want to be garbage men, and don't even associate with garbage men. But everyone seems to know this, for this is about all that is found in guidance and counseling literature.

The *Review of Educational Research* for April, 1960, contains 73 references to occupational and educational information with only one referring to the elementary school. Perhaps the author of the chapter was guilty of inner frame of reference reading, or perhaps there wasn't really much to report. In the last eight years of the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, there were only four articles dealing with vocational guidance in the elementary school. There was an equal paucity of material in ten years of *The Personnel and Guidance Journal*, where only two articles dealing with vocational guidance in the elementary school were found.

Nor is there much to be found in representative textbooks. In 84 articles in a book of readings by Farwell and Peters (6), there were five articles dealing with elementary school guidance, but nothing on the place of occupational information in the elementary school. This was also true of a book by Johnson, Buford, and Stefflre (13). Gilbert Wrenn's (30) recent opus paid little attention to the elementary school counselor in a changing world. In Willey's (29) book there were no references whatsoever, and a blank was also drawn in a book by Bernard, James, and Zeran (2). Cottingham (3), Barry (1), and Crow and

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Crow (4) made only the most fleeting of references to the place of occupational information in elementary school guidance in their books. All of these, it should be noted, are books dealing specifically with guidance in the elementary school.

At this point, one might wonder if this indicates that all these writers were missing something, or is it just that there is not much to write about when it comes to the place of occupational information in a program of elementary school guidance? From my reading, however, I did get some impressions.

Specifics Are Easy

Specific answers to specific questions about the place of occupational information at the elementary level seems to be answered fairly briefly and fairly easily. One of the two best examples I found occurred in Mathewson's book (19, p. 229) where he described the stages of a child's development, beginning in the early grades. He stressed identification of aptitudes and potentialities as:

> . . . Fundamental appreciations of conditions of social living, including common occupational pursuits being followed in the community and their meaning in fulfilling social needs.

More specifically, Norris, Zeran, and Hatch (20) indicate a need for information in early elementary grades to develop wholesome attitudes toward all fields of work, to make children aware of the wide variety of workers, to help children answer questions about occupations, and to bring out the varying rewards of work. They suggest that in upper elementary levels, occupational information will help a child learn about workers at the state, national and international level, it will aid him in seeing the interdependence of workers, and it will acquaint him with the abilities and qualities needed for successful performance on the job. In addition, they suggest occupational information will help him to know the areas of information important in making vocational choice, it will acquaint him with the problems of choosing and holding a job, and it will acquaint him with the fact that it is necessary to give careful study to making a choice of a future career.

Suggestions Are Debatable

The specific suggestions of "what to do" are more debatable than they appear to be, however, particularly in light of current personality theory, learning theory, and theories of vocational development. The "how-to-do-it" cookbook suggestions are easy to understand, and worthwhile, to a point. The only trouble is that the cookbook often only makes sense to the person who wrote it. When someone else tries a recipe, it just isn't the same. In fact, the cake often comes out quite flat, even though the cookbook was followed to the letter.

A good example of this is a reference by Hoppock (12, pp. 351-352) to a social studies program built around occupations where stress was on the study of man rather than the study of environment. It sounds wonderful, but it can probably serve only as a springboard for other creative teachers and counselors who will develop something of their own. Those less creative individuals who try to copy it will have a rather pallid version of what Hoppock describes, since the vital ingredient, the people who worked out the original plan are not there.

Theories Are Challenging

More vague, but much more challenging, is the question of the place of such a seemingly drab subject as occupational information in the elementary school, when considered in the light of various theories of vocational development. Webster gives plenty of leeway in the various definitions of a "theory." One definition states a theory as being "a more or less plausible or scientifically acceptable general principle offered to explain phenomena" while another, "a hypothesis; a guess." Too frequently, however, theories become viewed almost as facts. They develop a sort of halo that enables one to excuse almost any act, as long as he is following some theory.

Even better, of course, is developing your own theory of vocational development or choice. The pages of the *Journal of Counseling Psychology* abound with such theories. Often the educated people who develop these educated guesses are the first to agree that this is all they are. Unfortunately, however, sometimes theories become viewed as cause rather than effect, and studies are undertaken to show that what is true is true.

Empirically and existentially, one might question a situation where a theory becomes an acceptable reason for a certain action or movement that one human makes toward another. At least it seems reasonable to question those counselors who determine the future direction of others on the basis of someone else's guess as to where they should go and what they should do. Theories should not be viewed as determiners of human action.

One might assume that theories relating to vocational development should show some relationship to the actions proposed by some writers regarding what might be done about occupational information at the elementary school level. Unfortunately, they are often contradictory. With nearly all theories, at least in the area of human behavior, there is usually much evidence gathered on both sides. Theories which are more vulnerable, while generalized statements or guesses are more subject to modification according to the direction of the wind.

Roe (22), for example comes forth with a fairly definitive statement when she theorizes that certain kinds of family atmospheres create a psychological climate depending upon whether they satisfy or frustrate the early needs of a child. On this basis, she predicts particular and specific career groups toward which a child will move. The specific hypothesis, however, is not supported in such reported studies as those by Grigg (7), Hagen (9), Switzer, Grigg, Miller, and Young (27), and Utton (28). On the other hand, a study of Kinnane and Pable (15) confirms the general hypothesis that family influences are critical in the development of work values.

We find a somewhat similar contradiction of a more specific hypothesis when we note a study by Davis, Hagen, and Strout (5). This study tends to support the more specific aspect of the Ginzberg theory that tentative choices are made between ages 11 and 17, rather than the fantasy choices of earlier years. Small (24) reports a study in which no evidence was found to support the theory of a fantasy choice prior to eleven, or a movement toward tentative choices from 11 to 17. On the other hand, O'Hara's study tends to indicate that the normal upper limit of fantasy choice should be 8 or 9 rather than 11.

We also note that in 1962, sociologist Lipsett (18) commented that "If the thesis is accepted that social factors are of great importance in the vocational development and career planning of an individual, it follows that a counselor needs to understand these social factors and their influence upon an individual." It is interesting to find that Super (26) anticipated him by some six years when he said, ". . . although social action is important in understanding the development of the self, it does not satisfactorily explain the selection and synthesizing process which leads to the development of a self picture."

Most of what might be called the rather broad and general, and thereby safer, theories of vocational development tend to reflect the generally acceptable behavioral science, middle class views and values of the authors.

Holland (11) for example, discusses his theory, which ". . . assumes that at the time of vocational choice the person is the product of the interaction of his particular heredity with a variety of cultural and personal forces including peers, parents, and significant adults, social class, American culture, and the physical environment. Out of this experience the person develops a hierarchy of habitual or preferred methods for dealing with environmental tasks."

Segal (23) reports on an attempt ". . . to demonstrate that psychoanalytic theory can be utilized to predict personality differences in individuals choosing one of two vocational outlets. . . . These hypotheses were derived from information about the kinds of activities each of the professions required of an individual, and the interaction of such activities with the satisfaction of the individual's needs.

Hadley and Levy (8) refer to a "reference group theory" – the influence of groups on an individual's attitudes and behavior, and under what circumstances this influence is most effective, and the manner in which the influence is exercised.

All of these statements tend to point in a similar direction, in that they all reflect . . . a somewhat . . . deterministic, behavioral science view of man as being a creature of destiny, rather than the creator of his destiny. And while, at this point, one might say: what in the world has this got to do with the question of occupational information at the elementary school level, I would think it has a good deal to do with it, since much of the current writing and thinking on the "what to do" regarding this question tends to reflect the various theoretical postulates. Let us now take a questioning look at some of the thoughts and ideas that have been reflected in these past few pages.

Environment Reflects Man

Current occupational literature tends to operate on the assumption of a determined man living in an outside-of-him determined world, and in this sense accepts the general view of empirical science. Super (25, p. 2) voices this as well as anyone when, in defining his concept of vocational counseling, he refers to it as ". . . the process of helping the individual to ascertain, accept, understand, and apply the relevant facts about himself to the pertinent facts about the occupational world, which are ascertained through incidental and planned exploratory activities."

While we talk "freedom" and "development" and "choice", Super's statement, and others like it, carry a strong implication of understanding in the sense of accepting and adjusting to what is. The environment becomes the center of life rather than the individual. The "world-of-work" becomes some vague outside-of-the-person force to which man must learn to adjust. It becomes a sort of fixed field without people. It would seem, actually, to differ very little from the fitting of a certain shaped human to a similarly shaped occupational hole.

There is, however, another existential view of man which is somewhat different. Man is not seen as the determined victim of a determined world outside of him, but rather as the creator of that world. "Environment" is not something outside of me to which I must, in order to get along, learn to adjust, but it is, rather, a reflection of me. I have a responsibility, not to adjust to a fixed environment, but as a result of my living, to do something to modify and change both it and me. Indeed, one may question whether one could actually say "it" and "me," since they are both entwined with each other.

However, in this case the *me* is the essential ingredient, and the *it* something which is the product of the *me*. The reality of the Mississippi environment of James Meredith is not the same as that of another Mississippi Negro who numbly accepts his fate as a member of an inferior race. The James Merediths are the creators and the movers of their culture, not the passive victims of it.

To the child the occupational world, the much talked about world of work, does not become a dark outside bogey man to which he must adjust some sad day. Rather, it is a world of people, just as work is people. In this sense, it is no different than the world of work which is currently a part of him, whether he is 8 or 80.

The stress on prognosis, prediction, and the matching of a child's abilities to someone else's plans, implies a high level of the imposition of one human on another. It is restrictive. The implication is that one is bound by one's boundaries, and that the taking of a chance, the risking of possible failure in doing something to challenge those boundaries, is to be avoided at all costs.

Failure is only deadening when an individual feels and believes that there is nothing he can do about it. However, failure need not be traumatic if an individual feels that there is a chance for movement, that there is another direction where he may go. I do not accept the concept that it is always better to move a child away from a venture where the odds are that he will fail, as long as the direction he is going is the direction where he wishes to take a chance, to take a plunge.

In our culture, color of skin, religion, level of intelligence, physical deformity, may, of course, be restrictions to movement. However, they only chain an individual when he confuses his inner freedom-to-be with the restrictions on his outside freedom. One always has an inner freedom. It cannot be taken away. One can use this inner freedom to widen gaps and cracks in those outside forces which restrict outer freedom. Socrates was a freer man than those who offered him the cup. Christ was a freer man than those who nailed him to the cross. James Meredith is freer than the white students who spit at him.

These men have always been with us, and without them there would be no forward movement. The child can learn that this is the way he can be too, that actually, this is the way he *is*. Surely the elementary school teacher and counselor can help the child to move in the direction of being what he is, to live in a world of his making, unless they too, of course, have accepted the numb, secure, and deadening comfort of the world of Mr. Orwell, which is not unlike that of Mr. Skinner.

Information Is Unreal

If we at least consider the possibility that people and work are irrevocably related; that one does not learn how to best fit into the other; that to a high degree, one is the other; then we may raise the question of the part occupational information plays in the life of a young child. Certainly we can assume that occupational information, per se, has as little personal meaning as the vast majority of information which is poured, shoved, and ground into a child during his years of formal education.

Talk about the dignity of all jobs, including that of garbage man, probably means as little to a child as the suggestion that there is a relationship between that strange ingredient we call intelligence and successful performance as a surgeon. Both are quite unreal in the living world of a child. The garbage man, incidentally, must be getting a bit sick of being used as the occupational example of a fellow who is really doing an honorable job, usually by teachers or writers who would rather be dead than be a garbage man!

We might wonder if most occupational information must continue to be somewhat unreal to children and to all of us in a personal meaning sense. I agree with Hatch (10, p. 69), on the need for stress on occupational exploration in the elementary school, as indeed there should be the element of exploration in all learning and education. However, we should emphasize the use of information only as a vehicle and a means for exploration. What children remember specifically and didactically about a trip to a glue factory seems to me to be of no point whatsover.

What is important is the process and the involvement of the individual in the glue factory.

I question what seems to be a general assumption that an increase in the amount of information about anything will somehow result in a broader learning by the student. Learning, after all, is a process. It does not come with an automatic piling on of more and more information. Also, I agree with Lifton (17) when he says ". . . from both their teachers and their texts youngsters were receiving a distorted picture of the importance and types of job activities," and with Kowitz and Kowitz (16, p. 154) who say "On the elementary level the selection is too often limited to about a dozen service occupations such as the milkman, postman, and policeman."

Only, however, when this distorted picture is assimilated as a part of the person will it have a negative effect. We might assume that meaningless, distorted pictures are as hard to digest as meaningful, undistorted pictures. I would have a hunch too, that real distortion . . . depends on . . . the attitude and the value system of the teacher as she represents the information, valid or not, to the children. I applaud Kaye (14) when she says, in describing the results of an occupational unit in Grade 4, that it ". . . helped the children to work toward the goals of all good teaching; critical thinking, respect, and understanding." If this happens, it is more likely to be because of the teacher and her ability to get children involved in an exciting and exploratory journey of learning, rather than because of the information she used.

Words Are Restrictive

There also seems to be some unfortunate implications in the use of the words *fantasy* and *choice*. Choice is very much like freedom in that it is a relative, changing, moving, concept. Restrictions to choice, like those to freedom, may be from the outside as well as from the inside. Outside restrictions regarding choice that continually face the child are bad enough. Even worse, however, is the implication that choice, like freedom is an outer decided matter, rather than an inner determination. The child may grow to believe that he has no choice. Unfortunately teachers and counselors often teach him this lesson.

Choosing is not finding the "right" thing, but rather the ability to move within restrictions, modifying and changing them. The real lack of choice that faces many adults today is not an overt condition, but rather their acceptance of the concept that the extent of their choice depends on something else. It is a belief in their inability to have any choice that makes the lack of choice real.

The word fantasy as it is related to choice usually carries a negative connotation and is considered to be something which is not really real. In the field of occupations, fantasy choices are usually defined as translations of simple needs and impulses into occupational goals. Tentative choices on the other hand, are decisions based upon capacities, interests, and values.

This again, however, suggests outer determination of individual movement, and implies that unless we move in an occupational direction, where, according to the data, we "fit," we are being unreal and guilty of fantasy. This, I assume, is why Ginzberg would consider early occupational choices as fantasy, since the child has not yet had time to discover what his shape might be, and thus cannot fit himself into an appropriate niche.

The life which a young child in the elementary school is living however, is very real to him. For him, his current life is his world of work. Because he is involved in it day by day, I sometimes wonder if the so-called fantasy of his occupational dreams is possibly a good deal less fantastic than the occupational future that certain concerned adults are planning for him. While we consider fantasy to be akin to the discrepancy between the ideal self and the operating self, they are both a real part of real living. If we aim at reducing them to nothing, we may reach that unhappy stage of complete adjustment when we no longer will be alive.

This real world of children was illustrated in a recent conversation I overheard between four 8 and 9 year olds. They were talking about religions, and one of them said, "Well, I don't think I'd want to be a Jew," to which another replied, "Of course, if you were a Jew you'd feel different about being a Jew." The others all agreed. It might be better if we were to stop talking about preparing a child for the world to come, and help him to do the best he can in living the life he is living. The only real life that he can know is the life he lives. In all the rest there must be an element of fantasy and dreaming.

In occupational literature, the terms fantasy and choice are usually used in a behavioral science sense. They both smack of a concept where one spends a part of his life preparing to fit into something which will be best for him, and then after he is cozily fitted, that is that. However, since the life of a child differs only in degree from the life of an adult, the only way a child can "prepare" for the years ahead is to live the present years, which we might hope would include an element of what the more prosaic adult might consider fantasy.

Occupational information, then, has a claim to a place in the elementary school curriculum just as any other information and knowledge. Like any other information however, it is important only to the extent that a teacher or counselor is able to use it to help a child become involved in the learning process. I know of no evidence to indicate that memorizing the fact that the salary of a mailman is less than that of a high school principal will have any bearing on the vocational development of a child.

We might hope, too, that teachers and counselors, using information which is representative, valid, and accurate will help children to see that they may always have freedom of choice, no matter what the restrictions placed upon them may be. This freedom of choice implies that there will be no guarantee of success and happiness; that the choice they make may turn out to be wrong. They may even feel more certain about being uncertain and fantasize about the adult world of tomorrow, because it is simply an extension of their very real world of today.

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OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION FOR GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

GOLDIE RUTH KABACK

Two basic assumptions are usually taken for granted when a child enters school. First, it is assumed that he is now old enough to profit from well-defined learning experiences even though he may differ from others with respect to intellectual endowment, motivational aspects, and general living experiences. Second, it is assumed that he is now ready to learn how to get along with teachers and classmates, and to derive feelings of personal satisfaction from successful group experiences. It is not generally conceded, however, that the average child might also be ready to learn to relate what he perceives about him, through everyday living, to his future vocational development. Yet, observant teachers note almost daily that most children continue to offer clues, through various activities, of interests related to the work of the policeman, the teacher, the fireman, the doctor, and the airplane pilot.

In his play, the average child demonstrates that all occupations are of equal importance to him, for he has not yet learned about the "social status" of occupations. So far as he is concerned, he can be and do anything. He can wear a particular uniform, and he becomes what he wears; he can drive a tractor, a spaceship or an automobile without any special training; he can jump, hammer, lift imaginary weights, and climb the highest peaks with the greatest of ease. His natural curiosity, excitement, and enthusiastic acceptance of various vocational roles provide the basis for a dynamic relationship with the occupational life that surrounds him.

The following group experiences involving occupational information have been tried out by various teachers in my classes who are preparing themselves for elementary school counselor positions.

Early Elementary Projects

As a group assignment, one kindergarten teacher had suggested that the children in her class draw pictures of "People Who Work in Our School." When the majority of pictures turned out to be pictures of teachers or teachers and principals, the children began to examine the duties of the other school personnel whom they later visited. They soon discovered that the maintenance people, the lunchroom attendants, the

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nurse, the policeman on the corner, the persons who delivered food and books and supplies also contributed to the welfare of the school community.

Another kindergarten teacher asked the children in her class to draw pictures of "What I Would Like to be When I Grow Up." As the children held up their pictures of spacemen, baseball players, nurses, doctors, teachers, firemen, and cowboys, the teacher proposed a game wherein each child was to imagine living in a community where all the adults would be employed only in the occupations which their pictures represented. After a lengthy discussion the children concluded that there were many workers whom they had not considered before who were also very important members of the community. In particular, they mentioned the shoe repairman, the barber, the milkman, the workers in the supermarkets, the gardeners, the men who collected ashes and refuse, the taxi drivers, the dentists, and those who delivered daily newspapers and supplies.

Throughout the year the children brought in pictures from newspapers and magazines to supplement their own portfolio of drawings about "Men and Women in Jobs." Each child was also encouraged to tell what he knew about the various jobs in his particular portfolio. A construction worker from a nearby housing development project was delighted at the idea of coming to the school to tell the children what he did, after they had observed him at work one afternoon. He invited them to come again and showed them how to keep a record, in picture form, of the different floors added as the housing development neared completion.

A first grade teacher asked the children in her class to note the various types of business on their way to school and to discuss the jobs of the different people who worked them. Children who had formerly passed by groceries, florist shops, drug stores, vegetable stores, laundries, and clothing shops suddenly became aware of the dozens of different occupations represented within a few blocks of the school building.

In order to show the interdependence of workers, one second grade teacher had her children role-play a typical family that paid for a doctor's visit; another scene showed where the same money was latter paid to the doctor's nurse who used the money to pay for groceries; the grocer in turn paid the delivery man for delivering supplies to his store, and the delivery man's wife used the money to buy shoes for their children. Sometimes later, the teacher asked the children to act out the vocational roles suggested by their surnames. Thus, Eddy Taylor, Marian Baker, Tommy Stone, Alice Tanner, and Margaret Smith soon found themselves engaged in a variety of suitable occupations; the other children whose surnames did not led themselves readily to occupations adopted what they felt were congruent activities. For example, Henry Goldstein began to make jewelry, Emily Robinson decided that she should own a pet shop, and Mike McGregor played the role of a golf pro. The excitement of the group as they vied with each other in thinking through suitable occupations in connection with their names led to a discussion where surnames originally came from and how names were sometimes changed by newcomers to this country so that they could be written and pronounced more readily.

In another second grade class, after the children had reported on the occupations of their mothers – office workers, secretaries, nurses, teachers, and machine operators – one little girl remarked, "My mother does nothing; she just stays home." That week the teacher suggested that the children in class observe the work of their mothers at home and then come to class ready to describe what they had observed. As each pupil made his contribution, the teacher listed on the blackboard: nurse, chauffeur, cook, dressmaker, bedmaker, window washer, baker, cleaning maid, homework helper, letter writer, cashier, buyer of food and clothing, waitress, laundress, gardener, general manager, and beautician. The mother's role that had formerly been taken for granted now took on new proportions as the class began to discuss the skills involved in each of these occupations and what it would cost to hire a different person for each occupation mentioned.

3rd and 4th Grade Activities

A detailed examination of the kind of work that children perform in their classrooms frequently provides the basis for stimulating discussion on occupations. Thus, in one third grade where one child had served as the class librarian by checking books in and out and arranging them on shelves, another had cared for the plants, another had been responsible for collecting papers, and still another had passed out milk and cookies, the class began to discuss what these class assignments meant in the real world of work: what they would have to know in order to become a librarian, a botanist, a baker of cookies, or a worker in a dairy. The relationship between what they had formerly taken for granted as classroom assignments took on major importance as they began to realize that adults in the community also were performing similar kinds of work on a daily basis.

In preparation for a visit to the neighborhood bank, one third grade class, divided into several committees, gathered pertinent information from their parents and friends about people who work in banks: the bank clerks, the bank tellers, the assistant managers, the guards, the men in charge of the safety vaults, and the maintenance person. During the visit the bank personnel were pleasantly surprised at the type of questions that the children asked and the degree of interest in the variety of jobs performed. The highlight of the visit came when each of the children was permitted to punch a card on a newly installed computing machine for the recording of interest and deposits. Discussion on their return now included new information about computing machines and key-punch operations. Their vocational horizons had really been widened as a result of the one visit to include occupations which they and their teacher had personally not known about before.

One fourth grade teacher asked each child to interview an adult who was engaged in the kind of work that the child himself was interested in. As a result, one girl interviewed a teacher and made notes regarding the work of the teacher, the preparation involved, the satisfactions as well as the disadvantages of teaching; another girl interviewed the school nurse and made notes accordingly. One boy spoke to a junior high school shop teacher about woodworking; another boy interviewed a neighbor who happened to have been a baseball player some years ago. The pupils later reported on their interviews in class. The interview notes themselves were mimeographed and distributed as "Junior Occupational Handbooklets" so that the children could discuss the numerous experiences cited with their parents.

For a Christmas week assignment, one teacher suggested to a fourth grade class that they use their newly acquired cameras to take pictures of people engaged in different occupations in their neighborhoods and then to bring the pictures to class for discussion. Hundreds of slides and snapshots were passed around in class as the pupils finally classified the pictures into groups of occupations and job families. Each child was then asked to select the one occupation that he liked and the one that he did not favor and to find out all that he could about these two occupations. As the children presented their findings in class, there were many different opinions as to the relative merits of each occupation. They talked about abilities, opportunities, training, and the nature of the work involved, the advantages and disadvantages of each, as well as vacations, pay, and other fringe benefits.

5th and 6th Grade Projects

In one school, two fifth grade children accompanied each working parent who was a member of the PTA on a visit to his respective job. On their return, the children exchanged experiences regarding the work and the workers they had observed. One pupil told about his day in a law office, another described how he had helped sell vegetables in a neighborhood store, a third indicated that while driving a bus might be exciting for a while, he for one would be bored, "because one must drive through the same streets every day." The children learned about occupations from actually having been involved in the daily job experiences of real people.

After several visits to neighboring business establishments, a fifth grade teacher asked the children to discuss the relationship of the subjects they were studying (arithmetic, spelling, social studies, reading, writing, and art work) to the visits. Many of the children realized, perhaps for the first time, that what they were learning in their classrooms was actually useful in the every day life of the community.

Another fifth grade became involved in a unit on shelter as a social studies and science assignment. As the children talked about different kinds of houses, how they were built of wood, brick, glass, steel and cement, plumbing, electricity, gas, oil, and water, one pupil decided to bring in a picture of a carpenter whom he placed next to a picture of wood; another pupil followed suit and brought in a picture of a person who worked as a landscape architect because his uncle was engaged in landscaping. One pupil supplied a picture of his father as superintendent because his father happened to be the superintendent of the apartment house in which he lived. The teacher's report on this project revealed that she herself had found it to be one of the most exciting and interesting lessons that she had ever participated in. "The feeling of involvement and enthusiasm on the part of the children," she stated, "has been something that I have never experienced before when the class had merely discussed the type of shelters that people lived in."

A sixth grade teacher recently reported the following experience about providing occupational information to a group of social disadvantaged children. Acting on impulse, she called the Urban League in her city and asked whether they could send several people to talk to her pupils about the hardships they had encountered before they entered their present occupations. Six men, representing the professions and the trades, responded eagerly. As she told it, some of the teachers were moved to tears as the children sat enraptured at the personal and occupational information spread out before them. The men too were so enthusiastic about the response from the children and the type of questions asked of them that they have since called the school to ask when they might come again and for the school not to forget that they were always available for discussions of this kind.

Utilizing the lives of famous people as their birthdays are celebrated (Columbus, Washington, Lincoln), as well as names of people who appear in the newspapers or on TV, served as a basis for discussion in another sixth grade not long ago. The pupils traced the many occupations that each person had been involved in before he had settled on his final vocational choice. Comparing different types of occupations and how the nature of the work had changed over time led to intensive research and provoked rather heated debates as to whether people were happier and more satisfied with present day or with former jobs. The topic of leisure also came in for examination and the need to prepare for leisure through the development of hobbies and extra-curricular activities aroused a great deal of interest and speculation.

One sixth grade class, located in a very low socio-economically deprived area, invited former pupils now in junior and senior high school to return to the class and to discuss their educational experiences and what they hoped to do later on. A former elementary pupil, now a Peace Corps Member, also visted the school one day and fired the imagination of the pupils as he told about his work in one of the underdeveloped countries. One of the members of the city government, who had attended this elementary school many years before, also returned to talk about his days at the school and about his educational and vocational experiences which finally culminated in his present position.

Presenting Information

In addition to the occupational information projects mentioned here that teachers have worked out with their elementary school pupils, there are of course the usual films, slides, visits, interviews, and preparation of career booklets that every well-trained guidance counselor knows about. However, the mere imparting of occupational information is not enough. If occupational information is to have dynamic appeal to pupils, it must be related to their interests and to the subject matter under consideration in the classroom. Inviting individuals to discuss their occupations without giving pupils an opportunity to select the occupations they want to hear about or ignoring pupils' votes as to the number of occupations that should be represented merely means that teachers are carrying out syllabus assignments without taking into consideration the needs and the aspirations of the pupils in their classes.

The younger the child the greater the interest in the actual job performance itself. Most children are natural born actors; they want to act out in order to understand what it feels like to be a carpenter or a ball player. Elementary school children are less likely to be interested in the cost of preparing for a particular kind of work, how to apply for a job, or changes in the labor market over a period of time. They are more interested in the actual nature of the work than in the relationship of personal abilities to vocational demands. It is only later, as they mature and prepare to enter the labor force, do they become concerned about being interviewed for a job and the more practical aspects related to job information.

Many of our elementary school children need discussion about occupations because many of them come from homes where unemployment has now been the pattern for one or more generations and where future goals with respect to vocational choice are unspoken and unknown. The school then must become the link between education and eventual employment. While younger children may continue to identify themselves with public figures and TV personalities, it is not too early for them to begin to identify themselves with attainable vocations represented in their immediate neighborhoods.

Scores of children in our elementary schools come from families where high school and college education are the exception rather than the rule. These children need to be made aware that there are high school and college opportunities available for all even when one's parents and siblings did not attend. Many of the underprivileged children must be motivated to think and plan for the same kind of vocational levels that we take for granted among middle and upper class children. Their "poverty of experience" must be replaced by "multi-experiences." And many parents, and teachers too, must come to realize that their own attitudes toward work, whether these be attitudes of respect for all kinds of work, or attitudes that place a premium only on certain kinds of work, affect the attitudes of the growing, developing, inquiring children with whom they come in contact.

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THE WORLD OF WORK THROUGH ELEMENTARY READERS

W. Wesley Tennyson, Lawrence P. Monnens

Do present practices in our elementary schools lay the roots for future vocational maladjustment? Is it possible that in subtle ways the school unwittingly promotes a concept of the work world which, by its very distortion, will negatively affect the future utilization of manpower,

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interest, and talent? Lifton [1, 2] suggests that this may very well be the case. Unfortunately, there has been little systematic study of elementary school practices which may have an influence on the vocational attitudes and decisions of developing boys and girls.

The purpose of this study was to determine how the world of work is presented to youngsters through their elementary reading texts. It was assumed that the child's reading material does influence in unknown ways his vocational attitudes, and that an evaluation of the nature of that material would be helpful to both the classroom teacher and textbook publisher. Consequently, a descriptive analysis was made of the occupations mentioned in leading reading texts used by elementary school children. Answers were sought to three specific questions:

1. How adequate is the coverage given the work world?
2. To what extent are certain occupational areas emphasized?
3. Do the several reading series vary in their occupational emphasis?

The reading series of six well-known publishing companies provided the basic data for this study. A total of 13,344 pages in 54 readers used in grades one through six were analyzed. The occupations mentioned were classified according to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* [4]. Only those occupations which are indigenous to the American culture were classified.

Coverage of Work World

A classification of separate occupations mentioned in elementary readers provides a picture of the extent to which the world of work is sampled by authors of these texts. Such analysis resulted in a listing of 197 separate occupations, as shown in Table 1.

Do the data presented in this table represent adequately the range of occupations which make up the American economy? The recent *Occupational Outlook Handbook* [5], which purports to list occupations of major interest to youth, may serve as a basis for comparison. There are over 650 titles listed in the Handbook as compared with the 197 occupations mentioned in the fifty-four elementary readers. In the professional, technical, and managerial area alone, the *Handbook* reports approximately 180 different occupations, a number almost equivalent to the total occupations mentioned in the elementary readers. Close to 380 skilled and semi-skilled occupations are identified in the *Handbook* and mention is made of 85 occupations in the clerical and sales area. It is obvious that the view of the work world presented during the first six years of elementary school through reading media is limited in scope.

Occupational Emphasis

In order to determine the potential influence elementary readers may hold for career development and aspirations of boys and girls, an analysis was made of the frequency with which occupations are mentioned. The data, classified according to the D.O.T., are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 1

Classification of Occupations

Occupational Group		Number	Per Cent
Professional and Managerial		58	29.4
Clerical and Sales		17	8.6
Service		38	19.3
Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, and Kindred		18	9.1
Skilled		40	20.3
Semi-skilled		14	7.1
Unskilled		12	6.1
	Total	197	99.9

TABLE 2

Occupations Classified According to Frequency of Mention

	Grades 1-3		Grades 4-6		Total 1-6	
Ocupational Group	No. Times Men-tioned	Per Cent	No. Times Men-tioned	Per Cent	No. Times Men-tioned	Per Cent
Professional and Managerial	611	32.9	1096	47.5	1707	41.0
Clerical and Sales	211	11.4	69	3.0	280	6.7
Service	388	20.9	449	19.5	837	20.1
Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, and Kindred	406	21.9	348	15.1	754	18.1
Skilled	172	9.3	197	8.5	369	8.9
Semi-skilled	53	2.8	197	3.3	128	3.1
Unskilled	15	0.8	72	3.1	87	2.1
Total	1856	100.0	2306	100.0	4162	100.0

Professional and managerial occupations were given the greatest attention by authors of elementary reading texts. Even at the primary grade level, the doctor, teacher, judge, and related professional occupations were emphasized, and the frequency with which these occupations were mentioned increased in the intermediate grades. A heavy emphasis on service occupations was also noted. The skilled category and clerical and sales occupations received proportionately less attention by the textbook authors.

Although the occupational classification used in this study is not perfectly equivalent to that of the census, there is value in examining the data of Table 2 in light of occupational distribution of employed persons in the civilian labor force. The 1960 Census [3] found that economically active persons are employed in approximately equal numbers in the three occupational categories of (1) professional, technical, and managerial–19.9 per cent, (2) clerical and sales–22.3 per cent, and (3) operatives and kindred workers–19.9 per cent.

A proportionately smaller number, 14.3 per cent, was found in the category of craftsmen, foreman, and kindred workers, while the private household and service workers area accounted for 11.7 per cent. The marked discrepancy between occupations mentioned in elementary readers and the distribution of jobs resulting from census data is clearly evident. Particularly significant is the relatively minor emphasis given to skilled, clerical, and sales occupations.

Reading Series Compared

The reading series of the six publishers were analyzed separately to reveal differences, if any, in occupational emphasis. Comparative data are presented in TABLE 3.

Generally speaking, the occupational classification patterns for the several reading series are more similar than they are different. Prominent attention to occupations of a professional and managerial nature was evident in all six series, although the proportionate emphasis given to such occupations by the Ginn readers was not as great as that of other publishing companies. Skilled occupations were mentioned most frequently in the Ginn readers and the series published by Row Peterson. Occupations of a clerical or sales nature, particularly as they were dealt with in intermediate grade readers, were slighted by all the publishers. Service occupations appeared to receive undue emphasis in all readers, with the exception of the series published by Row and Peterson.

TABLE 3

Frequency with Which Occupations Are Mentioned in Different Reading Series

	Scott Foresman		Row Peterson		Houghton Mifflin		Ginn and Company		Winston	Economy
	Grades		Grades		Grades		Grades		Grades	Grades
Occupational Group	1-3	4-6	1-3	4-6	1-3	4-6	1-3	4-6	1-3	1-3
Professional and Managerial	32.5*	48.1	36.6	52.0	28.4	49.1	24.3	38.9	37.9	51.3
Clerical and Sales	5.1	2.7	4.8	0.6	19.2	5.3	16.9	1.6	16.1	0.8
Service	29.4	21.9	11.4	9.7	34.8	23.4	16.9	15.5	14.3	5.0
Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, and Kindred	27.8	12.3	32.6	14.0	8.8	14.7	23.3	23.6	14.9	22.7
Skilled	2.0	7.6	12.8	13.1	5.2	3.3	10.1	16.3	12.4	20.2
Semi-skilled	2.0	3.5	0.8	7.7	3.6	1.0	6.4	2.7	4.3	0.0
Unskilled	1.2	3.9	1.1	2.9	0.0	3.2	2.0	1.4	0.0	0.0
Total	100.00	100.00	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.9	100.0

*Reported percentages

AUTOMATION, WORK, AND LEISURE: IMPLICATIONS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

GOLDIE RUTH KABACK

Widespread mechanization since the Industrial Revolution has taught us that monotonous, repetitive labor, originally conceived by man to be important to his survival, can be performed more effectively and economically by machine. The present automation era however, where machines not only take over the labor of man but also correct and control their own operations as well, has been greeted with mixed reactions.

Solutions for reconciling the impact of automation on a democratic society have been suggested by the score. "A crash program of retraining those unemployed because of automation," has been accepted by some; but others, equally determined ask, "Retraining for what?" More education, tax cuts, amicable agreements between labor and management, more governmental intervention, less governmental intervention, earlier retirement plans, shorter workweeks, shorter workdays, giant public works programs, spreading work among a larger work force — each proposal has its own group of supporters.

While all educators must continue to be well informed about shifting economic trends and social developments, elementary school personnel in particular, need to become sensitized to the adjustments that children are often forced to make to the psycho-social changes which develop from new technological and scientific advances.

Effect on the Family and Child

Social changes hurt most at the family level. Adults may experience the immediate effects of disemployment but the children are the first to feel the effects of "forced family togetherness," adult confusion, frustration, and conflict.

Most disemployed parents try to provide food and shelter through meager earnings or through public assistance, but personal feelings or inadequacy and lack of self-worth make them poor models for identification purposes. Education then must provide knowledge about new educational and vocational requirements and the standards and values which exist in a society that disemployed parents no longer fit into nor understand.

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Even where parents do have some insight with regard to changing educational and work requirements, they frequently interpret such changes to mean increased pressure for higher scholastic achievement without regard for a childs' personal needs nor his academic potentialities. In these instances, it is the teacher or the school counselor who serves, willingly or not, as adviser, counselor, and meditator in the struggle between parental aspirations and pupil's estimated abilities.

Effect on Education

While education tries to meet the needs of pupils and their parents in this age of automation, education itself is not entirely unaffected by technological change. The increased use of programmed instruction, audio-visual aides, TV, tape recorders, and other systematic programs using electronic equipment and devices, are all too often greeted with mixed feelings by an insecure faculty and an administration not yet ready for change. The challenge then becomes one of determining whether education is able to accept the responsibilities that parents have delegated to it while education itself undergoes change.

Education today is called upon not only to provide formal schooling but also to help children develop the capacity for forming and changing self-concepts. Many parents, who have never been fully employed, are bringing up children in their own images. As one little seven year old said when asked what she wanted to be when she grew up, "Nothing. I'll just stay home like my mother and get checks from the president each month." Yet, the average elementary child is not unaware of the relationship between more schooling and job status and material rewards. The concept about the need for more education permeates the entire educational system. But the significance of the "dignity of work" and "respect for all levels of work" has not always kept pace with the urgency for more education.

What the School Can Do

Several elementary school teachers enrolled in a graduate class in occupational and educational information recently demonstrated that it is possible to have first, second, third, and fourth grade children learn to appreciate the value of the different types of occupations that they see about them. In one instance, the children discussed the work of the school aides who had just prepared and served lunch to them. The children concluded that women probably liked doing this kind of work because they had had experience cooking and serving food to members of their own families; that these women had to like children otherwise they would find work in restaurants serving adults. Moreover, they declared, it was necessary for these women to know how to count, to measure, and to read the names of foods in order to be equipped for their work. There was a growing respect among these children for jobs and job requirements which they had formerly taken for granted or to which they had been completely oblivious.

The job of the maintenance man who washed the school windows was also analyzed. The children discussed the courage it took to get out on a window ledge, the need for agility and speed to wash all the windows quickly, and the use of a strong belt attached to each window as a safety precaution. The matron who washed the lavatories and kept the school tidy, the man who replaced a broken window, the boy who delivered books and supplies to the classroom – all came in for job evaluations with special reference to requirements and abilities discussed in a climate of respect, interest, and admiration.

These same elementary school teachers used film strips about factory workers, bakers, grocers, and bus drivers. As each film strip was discussed freely, each child was encouraged to describe his parent's occupation and was guided to bring out the importance of the less glamorous workers and the special skills required for each job. The children talked about the men and women in the small shops in their neighborhoods; they also talked about the engineer, the doctor, the porter, the teacher, the airplane pilot, and the local butcher. They discussed many jobs, jobs that they probably consider in later years that may or may not be affected by automation; but the attitudes toward such jobs were established during a period of growth and development before biases and prejudices had undermined each child's ready acceptance of the dignity of work.

These elementary school teachers found that they could interest the children in workers and job requirements with the same units of study, the same film strips, the same texts, and the same pictures formerly used to emphasize things and products. They found that children could identify the satisfactions that workers could derive from their work as well as cite from personal experiences, the nature of the leisure time activities that workers engaged in after working hours.

The elementary school teachers, mindful of the fact that when children are left alone they readily accept each other without regard to the social status value of their parents' occupations, helped the children to recognize the social and cultural heritage which makes up the American way of life. The children became acquainted with the special contributions of the several minority groups represented in the school. The teachers asked the parents of these minority groups to prepare native dishes, to demonstrate native folk dances, to display handicraft work so that the children might be able to see for themselves the cultural contributions of each group to society as a whole. The school counselors held parent workshops for all parents in order to help them to become more aware of their feelings toward automation, education, the social status of occupations, and how such attitudes, transmitted to children, influence future levels of aspiration.

One of the school counselors, in an attempt to help provide a more adequate model of a working parent in a subsection of the community where most of the families receive public assistance, encouraged a group of mothers to come in twice a month to talk about their own educational and vocational plans and how they could best realize their own goals. The younger children and infants who were brought to the meetings, were cared for by several of the more mature sixth graders in an adjoining room. During the several meetings, representatives from evening schools explained the various courses of study open to women during late afternoons and early evenings; representatives from the State Employment Service spelled out the requirements for different jobs and how such requirements could be met; and Department of Welfare representatives promised special assistance to the women who had marketable skills. While it is too early to estimate the effects on the elementary school children whose mothers participated in the meetings during the school year, the general impression among the teachers in this school is that the children are more aware of the importance of educational and vocational planning even for adults.

The Manpower Development and Training Act, although not specifically created for this purpose, is probably having a similar impact on children as they listen to parents talk about the skills they are learning and the jobs they are prepared for. Identification with a working parent begins to take place during the elementary school years.

Achieving a Work-Leisure Balance

While education has generally accepted the responsibility of readying individuals for a lifetime of work, it must now also be prepared to assist individuals with planning for leisure, for leisure is gradually becoming an important center of life in an era of automation. The syllabus for the "three r's" must now be expanded to include another "r," the "r" of "recreation."

Perhaps, in time, NDEA Institutes will be organized to prepare school counselors to assist pupils not only to adjust to the world of work, but also to a society where they will have increasingly more time to explore, to investigate, to create, to contemplate, and to form deeper relationships with others through play.

Even the guidance journals may ultimately publish articles on "Leisure Satisfaction" similar to those now published about "Job Satisfaction." Tests and profiles of abilities related to leisure-time activities may eventually be developed and used in much the same way as tests and profiles of abilities that relate to educational and vocational planning. Attitudes toward a guaranteed annual wage paid by the government to those who, through no fault of their own, cannot be absorbed into the labor force may gradually become embedded in the present social security structure. Perhaps the price that any society finally pays for heightened technological change is expanded social welfare for its citizens and acceptance of leisure without guilt.

Concepts about helping an individual "to prepare for and enter into" suitable occupations go back to an era of boring, repetitive hard-labor calculated in "man-hours." The moralistic principles that "work is virtuous" and that "leisure is the work of the Devil" scarcely fit into present social and scientific ideologies.

Reactions of compassion and understanding toward those who have not yet found themselves vocationally, also related to former economic concepts of labor, are of a different order from those experienced toward individuals suffering from guilt and undiagnosed symptoms of boredom because they have never learned to view leisure as personally satisfying and socially acceptable. In this regard, perhaps an examination of personal feelings is now indicated so that school personnel may learn how to teach children the fine balance that can exist between work and play.

The capacity for joy and satisfaction, inherent in the learning process itself, appears to have been educated out of children. Instead, the accent has all too often been on the values of "education in relation to future vocations," "education for the next promotion," and "education and lifetime earnings." "Education for education's sake," a time-honored academic virtue now long neglected, seems to be regaining former status under automation, as projected work-leisure time provisions are planned.

It's a Matter of Values

Education has continued to instill a system of values based on the needs of society twenty or more years ago. Education justified this system of values under the heading of the "American Dream"; that hard work and diligence "will get you there," although education has yet to demonstrate by percept or example the satisfactions derived when one finally "gets there."

Elementary education has long accepted the responsibility for formal schooling. It is time that it now accepts the responsibility for the inculcation of positive attitudes and values with respect to all levels of work. Education must begin to recognize and encourage those play skills which may eventually bring personal satisfaction and fulfillment, without guilt, to boys and girls who have to cope with the variety of problems engendered in an era of automation.

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ATTITUDES TOWARD THE WORLD OF WORK IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

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The development of a psychology of work for each individual requires that the person have an understanding of himself and his needs. If we are to continue acting upon the premise that attitudes and values are developed in the formative years, then a formalized program of direction to the world of work should be inaugurated in the primary grades.

Super [4] and Roe [3] stress the behavioral significance of need structure to the psychology of the individual and his work and the impact of an occupation in relation to a given person. As in most of the literature on occupations, little attention is directed to the attitude and value formations previous to the juior high school level.

Almy [1, p. 200] relates that the six year old has lost some of his emotionally dominated behavior. "He lives more in a world of reality and less in a world of fantasy. He can understand a number of relationships in the physical world." Further, on a level of self-awareness, "He knows his actions have consequences for other people and is more alert to their responses and feelings." Jersild (2) has indicated that children have at an early age greater capacities for learning to meet, understand, and deal effectively with realities than has been assumed in psychological theories or in educational practice. Thus there is a basis for developing

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within the curricular program of the elementary school a design permitting the child to develop and to accept a more realistic image of himself and the world of work.

A Trial Program

The main purpose of this study was to determine whether or not primary grade children could realistically gain awareness important to vocational attitude and value formation.

A class of thirty third-grade children in a suburban Chicago elementary school were subjects of this study. The children came from an upper-middle to middle class socio-economic culture where the parents have shown interest in the school program and have cooperated with the school staff.

Structure

The class was in progress on a unit study entitled "Shelter." A filmstrip having many photographs of workers in the building industry was shown. Discussion of the material indicated that the children have little understanding of the workers' role and function.

Class discussion centered on ways the children might find out more about the occupations presented in the filmstrip. Since there is very limited reading material in this content area for third-grade children, it was suggested to the children that they might like to interview people they knew: fathers, relatives, neighbors, friends, and people who had in some way served the families. These might be store clerks, contractors, plumbers, carpenters, lumbermen, and real estate men.

The children, with the assistance of the teacher, phrased questions they would like to ask people in an interview. It was not a required project. The questions developed were:

1. What is the title of your job?
2. What are your working hours? Do you have to work at any other times?
3. Where do you do your work?
4. How does your work help our families or our community?
5. What do you like best about your work?

There are several stimuli present which served as motivational factors in the children's project:

1. Child involvement in the decision to do an interview.
2. Absence of compulsion on any child to interview.
3. Children's involvement in constructing the questions.
4. Interest of class teacher and of Loyola University graduate students.
5. Opportunity for the child to tape his responses and to hear his own voice.

Interview Returns

Upon completion of the interviews the children presented their interview material to the class, being taped in the process. The children read their responses. The class then discussed the material. By taping the responses the teacher could replay the material for discussion. Hearing themselves served as a novel experience for the children. Attention loss appeared to be reduced.

The students' responses in discussion, when compared with their initial discussion previous to the project, indicated an awareness of adults as working people. Many a student discovered the occupation of his father and how he spent much of his time away from home. Stores and service facilities were now viewed as "people working" services rather than just services which gave the children or their families "something." Friends and relatives took on different images because of the kinds of work they performed.

The children discovered that jobs have advantages and disadvantages and that one's interests (likes) have something to do with the enjoyment of what he does. The lumber yard manager liked "the feel and smell of wood." Some work involved working at different times of the day and varied days of the week. Some people finished early and had time to do what they wished. Some jobs involved meeting people, some the handling of materials, and others working indoors and/or outdoors.

A new dimension was added to school work and to school life. The "shelter" unit became more interesting and more related to grown-up life. When the work of the contractor was discussed, the subject became real: "Uncle John" or "Dad's friend, Mr. Higgins," is a contractor. Such characteristics as punctuality, self-direction, effort, carefulness, and study were no longer limited to areas "talked about" in school because as the interviews were shared and discussed, the importance of these traits in occupations was discovered.

One "like best" response that had particular importance for the group was "the satisfaction of a job well done" and what this means. Although the terms needed clarification for understanding to take place, the children attained greater meaning for themselves than was possible when the "why" of good work habits was presented to them.

The parents, at an Open House Night following the project, expressed their interest in the approach presented to and for their children. The children in and out of the classroom revealed a zest for the work because of its relation to reality.

Conclusions

The children in this project were able to:

1. Develop a more realistic understanding of the world of work.
2. Develop appreciations for different kinds of work.
3. Develop a respect for other people, the work they do, and the contributions made by providing products and services for everyone.
4. Perceive that interests and abilities enter into an individual's choice of work.
5. Understand that occupations have advantages and disadvantages for the worker.
6. Understand some of the interdependent relationships of workers.
7. Become acquainted through the grade level curriculum with new and unfamiliar vocations.
8. Develop study habits conducive to the development of work habits necessary for occupational success.
9. Develop some readiness for future concerns of vocational interest.
10. Gain a basic perception of the relationship of education to the world of work.

Implications

- Guidance in the elementary school must be developed primarily through teacher-pupil relationships.
- The elementary school teacher needs training and assistance to best assist the pupil in the total educational effort.
- Action research rather than theories alone is needed to assist her in her work.
- The guidance program must be developmental if a preventive philosophy is to become more than parroted words.
- There must be a consultant available to assist the teacher in formulating a program directed toward vocational development.

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OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE OF TWELVE-YEAR-OLDS

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A proposed theory of occupational choice postulates that it is an orderly process involving many years and many decisions [1].

Ginzberg theorizes that the process of occupational choice can be analyzed into three periods: fantasy choices before 11 years of age; tentative choices between 11 and 17 years of age; and realistic choices between 17 and young adulthood when the choice is finally crystallized.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the validity of parts of this theory of occupational choice. Do 12-year-olds make more tentative choices than fantasy ones? Are these choices a function of age only or are such factors as socio-economic environment, sex, race, intelligence, and reading retardation influential?

Method

All sixth graders from the three elementary schools in Muskegon Heights School District, Michigan, were sampled. School A is in a medium socio-economic neighborhood, while Schools B and C are in a low socio-economic locality. School A has all white children; School C has all Negro children; School B has students about equally divided between the white and Negro race. The average age of the 116 children in the study was 12 years. None was below 11 or over 16 years of age and, thus, all fitted within Ginzberg's tentative stage of 11 to 16.

All the children were asked to write paragraphs telling what they would like to be when they grew up and why they had made that par-

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ticular choice. These papers were then submitted to two judges for classification and tabulation according to Ginzberg's definitions.

Relationships were found by contrasting the boys with the girls; the whites versus the Negroes; the low socio-economic level with the medium group; the total sample with a group which showed reading retardation; and each school with the other.

Fantasy occupational choices were defined as translations of simple needs and impulses into occupational goals. Tentative choices indicated those decisions based upon capacities, interests, and values of the individual.

Race means either Negro or white; reading retardation refers to children of normal intelligence who were retarded in reading as shown by standardized tests; socio-economic environments were arbitrarily classified as low and medium; and intelligence quotients were based upon standardized tests given at the various schools involved.

Results

It was found that in School A, 22 of the 29 girls made tentative choices, while only 6 of the 18 boys did so. In School B, 13 of the 18 girls made tentative choices and 8 of the 16 boys made similar choices. School C supported the tendency of girls to choose more maturely, as 11 of the 14 girls were in the tentative category, in contrast to 8 of the 15 boys. In the total sample, 74 per cent of the girls were in the tentative classification, while only 41 per cent of the boys could claim this maturity. TABLE 1 shows these data, according to school, sex, and tentative or fantasy choices.

TABLE 1

Tentative and Fantasy Choices in Schools A-B-C

	School A	*School B*	*School C*	*Total*
T[*] g	22	13	11	46
b	6	8	8	22
F g	7	5	4	16
b	13	8	11	32
Total	48	34	34	116

[*] T indicates tentative choice, F indicates fantasy choices; "g" is girls in the sample; "b" is boys in the sample.

Interesting, too, were the relationships found between intelligence and occupational choice. Results showed that children who have less than 90 IQ made fantasy choices more often than tentative choices. However, the children whose IQ's ranged from 100-129 made over twice as many tentative choices as fantasy ones at the same average age. TABLE 2 shows the percentage in each IQ group that made tentative and fantasy choices.

TABLE 2

Relationship of Occupational Choice Maturity to IQ

IQ	70-79	80-89	90-99	109	119	129	Total
T	0	3	14	28	20	3	68
F	1	10	13	14	10	0	48
Total	1	13	27	42	30	3	116
%-T*	0	23	52	67	67	100	

*%-T indicates per cent of total sample making tentative choice in each IQ group.

When all 116 sixth graders from schools A-B-C were contrasted with 41 with reading retardation, it was found that while only 40.9 per cent of the total sample made fantasy choices, more than 51.0 per cent of the retarded group did so. This indicates that reading retardation may be related to immaturity of occupational choice.

A comparison of School A with the combined totals for Schools B and C showed 58.3 per cent tentative choices and 59.7 per cent tentative choices respectively. Socio-economic level apparently has little or no relation to the occupational choice maturity of the children.

When School A (all white), School C (all Negro) and School B (mixed) were compared, the percentages were: A, 58 per cent tentative, 42 per cent fantasy; B, 62 per cent tentative, 38 per cent fantasy; C, 56 per cent tentative, 44 per cent fantasy. It is difficult to draw conclusions from these last data, because the intelligence level of the students in School A was considerably higher than that of the other schools and there were more girls (proportionately) in School A than in Schools B and C, but it does not seem that race is related in any significant degree with maturity of occupational choice as indicated in this study.

However, much speculation could be made about School B, with the highest percentage of tentative choices of either the white or colored, since School B had almost equal amounts of boys and girls and 68 per cent of the students fell into the normal IQ range (90-110).

Conclusion

It was found that of the 116 12-year-old sixth graders studied, tentative choices were made by 60 per cent of the students. More mature choices seem to correlate positively with intelligence and the feminine sex, and inversely with reading retardation, but not with race or socioeconomic environment. On the whole, this study seems to substantiate Ginzberg's theory of occupational choice.

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CHILDREN'S CONCEPTIONS OF OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE

BARBARA GUNN

This study was an attempt to discover something about the way a child acquires concepts of occupational prestige. Several studies have pretty well established that most people above the age of 14 are able to rank jobs according to what they believe are status gradations. Himmelweit, Halsey, and Oppenheim concluded that adolescents had acquired essentially an adult view of the prestige of occupations [1]. North and Hatt found ratings by different age groups (beginning at age 14) "remarkably parallel throughout" [2].

If we assume that a child learns concepts of occupational prestige in much the same way he learns other concepts, the work of Jean Piaget is most suggestive. Piaget described in detail the way children of different ages conceive of the rules of the game of marbles. To summarize briefly: The five- and six-year-olds he characterized as belonging to the age of egocentrism. The seven- to ten-year-olds assigned to the "cooperative" stage, characterized by attempts to make marbles a social game. Older children were "rule happy"; they sought out exceptions and took delight in codifying them [3].

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It may be that discussing concept learning as occurring in stages is only a customary and convenient method of describing changes that occur during an interval of time. Certainly the "cutting points" between stages are often arbitrary. Nevertheless, studies of concept learning stress that learning occurs in stages, with one stage a prerequisite to the next. Strauss, in a study of the development of monetary meanings in young children, concluded that children of different levels are "different beings" and that it is fruitful to consider them so, not as possessing more or less knowledge [5].

Stendler, in describing the way children learn concepts of social class, grouped them into three stages: (1) pre-awareness, Grades 1 and 4, (2) beginnings of awareness, Grades 4 and 6, and (3) acceptance of adult stereotypes, Grades 6 and 8 [4].

If a child sees status gradations in occupations, it follows that he must differentiate jobs according to some criteria or value system. Thus this study was concerned not only with the order in which a child ranks occupations, but even more with the reasons he gives for such rankings. In these reasons, the child gives clues as to the value system he uses. A comparison of the reasons given by children of various ages should suggest a developmental pattern in their learning of the concepts of occupational prestige.

Study Procedure

Twenty boys in each grade, 1 through 12, in the public schools of Palo Alto, California, were asked to rank 11 jobs in order of their standing in the community. The 11 jobs were selected from the list of 88 used in the North-Hatt study. (Although subjects in the North-Hatt study were asked to rate "standing" of occupations, North and Hatt later transformed these ratings into rankings of from 1 to 100.) Each boy was asked to rank also his father's job and the job he intended to have and to give reasons for his placement of each job. Each boy was asked if he had heard of the term *social classes*, and, if he had, what he thought it meant.

Two considerations helped determine which of the 88 occupations in the North-Hatt list would be used for this study: (1) each occupation selected had to be one with which young children were familiar, and (2) occupations selected had to represent approximately equal prestige steps on the North-Hatt list. The occupations selected and their prestige scores on the North-Hatt list were: physician – changed to doctor for the children's list–93; lawyer, 86; owner of a factory that employs 100 people, 82; teacher, 78; electrician, 78; policeman, 67; garage mechanic, 62; clerk in a store, 58; filling-station attendant, 52; janitor, 44; and shoe-shiner, 33.

A measure of the boy's approximation to adult ranking was obtained by comparing his number placement of each occupation with the adult placement of the same occupation in the North-Hatt study. The sum of the differences (without regard for plus or minus signs) then became a measure of the boy's approximation to the adult scale. Thus the closer the boy's score to zero, the more nearly he approximated the adult ranking.

The North-Hatt list of occupations was used further to set up two groups of boys, one group whose fathers' or similar jobs scored 67 or more points on the North-Hatt prestige list and a second group whose fathers' or similar jobs ranked below 67. This was roughly a dichotomy between professional-managerial, upper white-collar occupations, and lower white-collar and laboring occupations. For purposes of this study the boys whose fathers' occupations rated 67 or more points on the North-Hatt scale are designated as Upper Class boys; those whose fathers' occupations rated below 67 are designated as Lower Class boys.

For practical purposes it was necessary to confine the interviewing to one school at each level. An elementary school was selected that draws students from both a low-rent, predominantly laboring class area in South Palo Alto and from a second area made up largely of engineering and publishing firms adjacent to Stanford University. The junior high and the high school selected both draw from a much larger area than the elementary school, but include the elementary school area.

Names of boys were drawn from cumulative record cards furnished by the classroom teachers. At the elementary level, where total enrollment was about 360, all classes were included. Eliminated from the study were boys more than one year older or younger than the median age for that grade and boys whose fathers were not living or whose fathers' whereabouts were unknown.

The interview began in all cases with the explanation that we were going to talk about jobs, to find out how he felt about certain ones. The elementary school boys were asked, "Which of the following jobs do you know about?" Jobs not known or inadequately described were crossed from the list so that each boy ranked only those jobs with which he was familiar. The boy was then told that some people think some jobs have better standing than others — what did he think? This usually led to a ranking of the jobs on the list, although some boys categorized jobs and a few, especially in Grades 1 and 2, felt that they were "all the same."

For boys who hadn't yet learned to read, the list was repeated, varying the order of occupations, as many times as necessary. As the boy indicated which job should come first, which should come next, etc., he was asked to explain why he ranked it there. Most of the boys volunteered this information as they placed the job.

A list of seven criteria used in ranking jobs was set up in an attempt to classify responses of the open-end variety. In general, the list corresponds with the one set up by Weinstein in his study of the occupational prestige rankings of 72 children in three grade levels [6]. The criteria used in the present study were: service, income, attributes of the job, psychological rewards, education, power, and unspecified.

At the junior and senior high schools, the same set of questions was administered in written form.

Grades 1 and 2

Boys in Grades 1 and 2 described the occupational world very largely in terms of what it meant to them personally, thereby clearly placing themselves in Piaget's "age of egocentrism." Most of them knew what they wanted to be, and for them it was as simple as picking the job they wanted to have. Of the 40 first and second graders interviewed, 39 knew what they were going to do. Only one of the 39 made a distinction between what he wanted to do and what he expected to do. Five first graders and five second graders (25 per cent) chose their fathers' occupations for themselves.

The typical first and second grader knew eight or nine of the 11 jobs on the list. He could readily pick out the job he felt had the best standing and often the one he believed had the second best standing. After that, the rest "were about the same." He typically rated his expected job Number 1, especially if that were also his father's job. When asked why he put that job Number 1, he would answer "because that's my father's job. Of the 11 first graders who ranked jobs, eight ranked their intended job Number 1. The specific jobs were policeman (2), sailor, carpenter, laundry worker, doctor, chemist, and TV repairman.

The first and second graders frequently equated what they considered dangerous jobs with high standing. Policeman was most often given Number 1 rating and was the most frequently mentioned intended job – by seven first graders and three second graders. That a policeman "had to be brave" and "wasn't afraid of danger" were typical reasons for their choice. One second grader who ranked his dad's job (butcher) Number 1 explained that his dad had to operate very dangerous ma-

TABLE 1

Boys' Approximation to Adult Ranking of Occupations

Grade in School	*Mean Difference Between Boys' and Adults' Ranking*[*]
5	19.3
6	17.8
7	14.6
8	12.9
9	13.1
10	11.0
11	9.9
12	8.6

[*]Computed without regard for signs from the sum of the differences between the boys' and the adults' ranking of each of the eleven occupations.

TABLE 2

Boys' Rank of Specific Occupations – Policeman and Lawyer

Grade in School	*Mean Rank*	
	Policeman	*Lawyer*
3	1.8	3.0
4	2.8	3.5
5	2.9	4.6
6	3.5	4.0
7	3.5	3.8
8	3.6	3.6
9	3.6	3.0
10	5.5	2.5
11	4.8	2.5
12	5.3	2.1

chinery – the hamburger-grinding machine, big saws, and sharp knives. Another boy ranked his father's job (blade operator) Number 1, explaining that the blade was a big and dangerous machine. He added that his grandfather had an even more important job because he repaired blades and often worked right underneath one. He then vividly described what would happen were the blade to fall.

Other reasons for ranking were also phrased in terms of what the job meant for the boy. A teacher "helps learn numbers up to 100, maybe

3,000," or a teacher is important "because if you're climbing up a tree and get stuck, a teacher helps you out." A shoe shiner is important because "it looks nice to have shoes clean." A mechanic gets to "jack up cars, oil them, stuff like that." An electrician "fixes the TV," or, in another reference to the "danger" reasoning, "You might get killed if you monkey with the wires yourself."

Boys in Grades 1 and 2 carefully refrained from casting a slur upon any job. Each job was ranked without reference to the others. In answer to the question: "Why did you rank janitor there – Number 10?" a typical answer was "because we need somebody to clean the rooms."

Grade 3

Some time within the third grade the child evidently begins to see a status hierarchy in jobs. Whereas no first grader and only one second grader was able to rank all the jobs he knew, eight third-graders were able to rank all the jobs. The third graders seemed to be entering a new stage characterized by widening horizons and a tendency to look at jobs in terms of importance to the community. Choosing one's own job becomes more complex some time in the third grade; it is no longer a matter of simply doing "daddy's job" or picking out the thing that is the most fun. Gone is the tendency to rank father's job Number 1 and only one boy chose his father's occupation for himself. Only one boy rated his intended job Number 1 and since his intended job was doctor he may have been following a service criterion.

Although six third-graders still believed policeman the Number 1 job, five boys rated doctor Number 1 and this is a characteristic of boys in Grade 4 and above. Four rated lawyer Number 1 and there was some confusion of lawyer's work with the work of policeman. The third grader believes that policeman and lawyer are about the same in standing because "they both work for justice." If pressed, the third grader will rate policeman over lawyer because the policeman does harder and more dangerous work.

Grades 4, 5, and 6

Characteristics which began in the third grade are accentuated in Grades 4, 5, and 6, Boys in these grades no longer rank jobs in terms of what they mean personally. Service criteria are used rigidly and service is phrased in terms of good for the community or the country. To the boy in Grades 4, 5, and 6, his father's job is another job to be evaluated in terms of service. It carries no particular prestige value just because his father performs it.

It is in Grades 4, 5 and 6 that the ability to rank jobs is learned, but not until Grade 7, did all boys rank all jobs. Beginning with Grade 4, the occupation of doctor is ranked Number 1; boys below Grade 4 ranked policeman Number 1. Most of the boys clearly saw doctor and policeman at one end of the scale and janitor and shoe shiner at the other end. They were not so sure about the jobs in between.

With two exceptions (out of 60 interviewed and 44 ranked jobs) boys in Grades 4, 5, and 6 used a service criterion (corresponding perhaps to Piaget's "cooperative" stage). Some examples of the ways boys in these grades employed service criteria follow:

A fourth grader in ranking his dad's job, landscape architect, Number 7 (below filling-station attendant) – "It's not really needed; it just helps to make things look fancy."

A fourth grader in ranking his dad's job, medical salesman, Number 2 (below policeman and above doctor) – "If not for his job the doctor wouldn't get medicine to cure people."

A fourth grader in ranking factory owner Number 1 – "He makes things to help the public."

A sixth grader who would like to be a trumpet player and who ranked it last – "It's just for enjoyment."

A sixth grader who ranked teacher Number 1 – "You have to have a teacher to get almost all those jobs."

No boy in the first grades said he had heard the term *social classes* and no boy even attempted to tell what he thought it meant.

Grades 7, 8, 9, Extending into Grade 10

This was the earliest stage at which all boys ranked all jobs. Beginning in the seventh grade, the boys saw a definite ladder of occupational prestige. Boys in Grades 7, 8, and 9 had an emerging awareness of social class and an increasing use of other than service criteria. For the seventh graders, service to the community is still the main consideration. Through Grades 8 and 9 awareness of other criteria increases and by Grade 9, there is mention of all six criteria: service, money, attributes of the job, psychological rewards, education, and power.

Seventh grade was the earliest that any of the boys evidenced any knowledge of the term *social classes*. Three of the 20 seventh-graders interviewed had some idea of the meaning of the term. It seems that typically a child first becomes aware of social class by recognizing that there is one group of people set apart from others – "Some people think they're better than others" or "A class of people who go well with society." Later comes recognition of not only one class, but other classes as well.

Whereas only three of the 20 seventh-graders interviewed had some idea of the meaning of social class, six of the eighth graders and 10 of the ninth graders were able to give at least partial definitions.

Sample eighth-grade definitions: (1) "money – a person with a million dollars in one class, etc.," (2) "A standing in society determined by how much money you have or haven't," (3) "Popular people who go to parties," (4) "Rich, stuffed people, the poor people, and the average person," and (5) "The people who have high-paying jobs, go to formal dances, things like that."

Ninth graders were slightly more sophisticated in their definitions; for example: (1) "Low and upper, poor and rich, etc.," (2) "Rank in society – shoe shiner not in same one as owner of a factory," (3) "Different groups of people – some are smart people – others may not be so lucky," (4) "Terms of wealth in the U. S. – high, middle, low – middle is the biggest," (5) "Separation by race, religion, money, and power," (6) "Hindu caste system. I'm glad that there are no social classes in the U. S."

Part of Grade 10 and Grades 11 and 12

Boys in Grades 10, 11, and 12 ranked occupations in essentially the same order as did adults in the North-Hatt study. A summary of their approximation to adult ranking as measured by the sum of the differences between the boys' and the adults' ranking of each of the occupations is listed in TABLE 1. As would be expected, the older boys more nearly approximate adult ranking. The tenth graders' ranking was identical to the adult ranking except for the misplacement of clerk. The eleventh graders' ranking was identical to the adult ranking except for the transposition of electrician and policeman. The twelfth graders' ranking was identical to the adult ranking except for the transposition of electrician and teacher. TABLE 2 shows the changes in rank associated with the age of the children for two occupations – lawyer and policeman.

Considering occupational prestige of the boys' fathers, the boys whose fathers' jobs rated high tended to overrate the service occupations of teacher and policeman. Upper Class boys in Grade 11 ranked teacher above factory owner, for example. Lower Class boys downgraded teacher to Number 6, below electrician and policeman.

Not until Grades 10, 11, and 12 did any boy show contempt for what he believed was an inferior job. Boys in earlier grades ranked janitor Number 10 (next to last) because "He keeps buildings clean." Boys in Grades 11 and 12 were not so kind. "A janitor's job is for people handy with a broom." A janitor is usually an old man who can't do anything else." "A janitor's not too important in community standing – nobody cares about him." Similarly, a mechanic is "something for people to do," service station attending is "a way of making a small amount of money," and "A bootblack is fun for the feeble-minded." The Lower Class boys rated electrican, mechanic, and service-station attendant considerably higher than did the Upper Class boys. Upper Class boys more often used a service criteria; Lower Class boys considered income and working conditions. The Lower Class boys demonstrated more knowledge of salaries and working conditions in such jobs as electrician and mechanic and service station attendant; the Upper Class boys tended to lump the three jobs together as "requiring some skill but not much education." One Upper Class boy, ranking by what he believed to be income, rated mechanic below clerk in a store.

Most (87.5 per cent) of the boys in Stage 4 understood the term *social classes*. Some of the definitions were sophisticated considering that no class in sociology is offered at the high school level. One Upper Class eleventh grader wrote that the term referred to:

> Certain value orientations held by groups of people that make approximately the same amount of money. These people look on other groups that either make decidedly more or less as being in a different social class. It has become a purely monetary ranking of individuals.

Generally, boys in Grades 11 and 12 accepted social classes as an established fact and did not express the concern or indignation over the term that boys a year or two younger did. Their conception of the term was fixed and they used it occasionally to place an occupation where they *knew* it belonged. One boy, for example, ranked janitor Number 10, explaining "Society has placed it for me." Another wrote, "A policeman has responsibility, but he's always in the middle class." Boys in this stage were the only ones to indicate they saw a relationship between *social class* and *standing* of certain jobs.

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CHILDREN'S RANKINGS OF OCCUPATIONAL PRESTIGE

Dale D. Simmons

Many factors are involved in the development of a career pattern. One of the major factors is that of social status. Many studies have indicated that social status is related to vocational plans and actual vocational choice [*1, 3, 4, 8, 11*]. Among adults a clear hierarchy of status among occupations has been reported in many investigations [*2, 5, 6, 10, 14*]. However, if we are to understand the *development* of a career pattern, we should have information regarding the awareness of occupational status among children. Studies by Stewart [*12*], Weinstein [*13*], and Galler [*9*] suggest that fourth- and fifth-grade children are aware of the prestige of occupations. However, these studies give no indication as to the extent of agreement between children and adults. Nor do they give any indication of changes that occur between the elementary school years and the adult years. Hence, a study was conducted to gather information on the development of awareness of occupational status among children.

Method

Subjects: The subjects participating in this study all attended public schools in a small, western college community (Corvallis, Oregon). The sample was composed of 28 fourth-grade males, 28 eighth-grade males, 29 twelfth-grade males, 18 fourth-grade females, 19 eighth-grade females

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and 19 twelfth-grade females. The above subgroups were matched for intelligence, and for socio-economic background. However, because of the predominance of college personnel in the community, the average intelligence for the total sample was above the national average (mean IQ = 113).

Procedure

Procedure: Each subject was requested to rank a list of 20 occupations for prestige and for personal interest. Separate lists were used for each sex. Prestige was defined for the subjects as follows: "Prestige means to look up to, to respect, to admire, to be proud of, to honor a particular job." The interest rankings were obtained following the prestige rankings with the following instructions: "Regardless of how much prestige you feel a job has, we would like to know how interested you would be in having that job for yourself." A retest procedure was conducted approximately two months later.

Results

Is there agreement within subgroups as to the prestige and interest rankings of given occupations? Coefficients of concordance were significant beyond the 0.001 level for all subgroups indicating a high degree of agreement. However, even though all coefficients were significant, some increase in agreement with age did seem to appear in the case of the prestige rankings.

What are the actual prestige and interest ranks assigned by the subgroups? A prestige hierarchy was established for each subgroup on the basis of the median rank received by each occupation. These ranks are given in TABLES 1 and 2, along with ranks from previous comparable studies.

How reliable are the groups' rankings and the individual subjects' rankings? The test-retest procedure allowed the computation of two sets of reliability coefficients.[1] The first was a comparison of the test and retest group hierarchies. The second procedure was to determine each individual's test-retest correlation. In this later case, the median rho for

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[1] In all cases, the correlation coefficient cited is Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient. Because the author considered this an inductive study rather than a hypothetico-deductive one, the two-tailed test of significance was called for. This resulted in halving the probabilities found in tables of significant for Rho [7], i.e., a correlation significant at 0.01 level in the table is cited in this article as significant at the 0.02 level, etc.

TABLE 1

Prestige and Interest Ranks of Occupations Based on Median Rank: Males

Occupation	Deeg and Paterson [6]	Grade 12		Grade 8		Grade 4	
		Prestige	*Interest*	*Prestige*	*Interest*	*Prestige*	*Interest*
Doctor	1	1	2	1	1.5	1	1
Banker	2.5	4	3.5	2.5	1.5	7	2
Lawyer	2.5	2.5	1	4.5	3	2.5	4
Superintendent of Schools	4	2.5	8	4.5	7	4	6.5
Army Captain	5	5.5	3.5	2.5	5.5	2.5	3
Foreign Missionary	6	5.5	16	6	13	11	8
Elementary School Teacher	7	7	12.5	8.5	14.5	6	10.5
Machinist	8	11	6	10	4	11	15
Insurance Salesman	9	9	12.5	8.5	9	9	6.5
Electrician	10	8	5	7	5.5	5	15
Farmer	11	13	11	15.5	8	11	9
Grocer	12	11	8	14	12	13.5	10.5
Mailman	13	16	14.5	12.5	11	13.5	12.5
Carpenter	14	11	8	11	10	15	15
Plumber	15	15	10	17	16.5	18	17
Soldier	16	17	17	12.5	14.5	8	5
Barber	17.5	14	14.5	15.5	16.5	19	12.5
Coal Miner	17.5	18.5	19	18	19	16	19
Janitor	19	18.5	18	19	18	17	20
Ditch Digger	20	20	20	20	20	20	18

the distribution of correlations for individuals in each subgroup was determined. These data are given in TABLE 3, as is the range of individual test-retest correlations.

What degree of agreement exists between our subgroups and between our subgroups and other studies? Between group correlations for both prestige and interests are given in TABLE 4. Correlations between our different subgroups and earlier studies are given in TABLE 5. Inspection of these tables suggests that for males there is a highly significant awareness of adult occupational prestige as early as the fourth grade; but that for females, the same degree of awareness does not seem to develop until the eighth grade. Also it would seem that our male subgroups have a

TABLE 2

Prestige and Interest Ranks of Occupations
Based on Median Rank: Females

Occupation	*Baudler and Paterson* [2]	*Grade 12*		*Grade 8*		*Grade 4*	
		Prestige	*Interest*	*Prestige*	*Interest*	*Prestige*	*Interest*
Doctor	1	1	9.5	1	6.5	2	9.5
Artist	2	3	1	4.5	13	13	9.5
Nurse	3	4.5	9.5	2	2.5	1	1
Writer	4	2	2.5	3	13	14.5	16
Designer	5	4.5	4	8	2.5	9	11.5
Secretary	6	9	2.5	6.5	1	4.5	3
Buyer	7	10	6	11	9	17.5	18
Elementary School Teacher	8	6	6	4.5	5	3	6
High School Music Teacher	9	7.5	11.5	6.5	15	7	4.5
Kindergarten Teacher	10	7.5	6	9	6.5	4.5	2
Musician for Dance Band	11	11	15	15	16.5	10.5	16
Dressmaker	12	12.5	15	11	9	10.5	11.5
Office Machine Operator	13	12.5	15	11	13	16	16
Beauty Operator	14	15	13	13.5	4	8	8
Sales Clerk	15	15	11.5	16	11	12	13.5
Telephone Operator	16	15	8	13.5	9	6	7
Factory Sewing Machine Operator	17	18	18.5	17.5	18	19	19
Maid	18	19.5	18.5	19	17	20	20
Waitress	19	17	17	17.5	16.5	14.5	4.5
Laundry Worker	20	19.5	20	19	20	17.5	13.5

greater communality of interests than do the female subgroups, as evidenced by higher between-grade correlations in each comparison of subgroups.

Is there any relationship between the prestige and the interest? As with the reliability coefficients, two procedures were used to estimate the relationship between prestige and interest rankings. First, the hierarchies of prestige and interest for each subgroup were correlated. Secondly, the correlations between prestige and interests for each individual were

TABLE 3

Test-Retest Reliability of Prestige and Interest Ranks

	Group Rank (Rho)	*Median of Individual Test-Retest (Rho)*	*Range of Individual Correlations*	
			Low	*High*
Prestige				
Males				
Grade 4	0.891	0.558	–0.436	0.850
8	0.954	0.825	0.322	0.963
12	0.987	0.891	0.247	0.955
Females				
4	0.780	0.521	–0.033	0.840
8	0.860	0.763	–0.375	0.943
12	0.975	0.901	0.538	0.976
Interests				
Males				
Grade 4	0.909	0.533	–0.213	0.951
8	0.911	0.965	0.532	0.989
12	0.949	0.802	0.378	0.918
Females				
4	0.872	0.591	0.124	0.898
8	0.922	0.755	0.223	0.958
12	0.823	0.773	0.631	0.927

placed in a distribution and the median rho determined for each subgroup. These data are presented in TABLE 6. Inspection of these data suggests that considerable agreement between prestige and interests does exist in general, but that different impressions might be gained by the use of only one estimate of this relationship, *i.e.*, in only one case was the median rho for individuals higher than the group comparisons. This would suggest that comparing groups may support the contention of a high relationship between prestige and interests whereas comparing the prestige-interest rankings for individuals may not give as much support to this idea. Also, because the prestige and interest rankings were obtained at the same time, part of the correlations obtained might be due to a "halo" effect.

Discussion

Three major impressions were developed by the author as a result of this study. First, the stereotype of elementary school children as being

TABLE 4

Agreement Between Subgroups

Grades Compared	*Prestige Ranks* *Rho*	*Interest Ranks* *Rho*
Males		
4-12	0.826 $P < 0.02$	0.540 $P < 0.02$
4-8	0.886 $P < 0.02$	0.673 $P < 0.02$
8-12	0.934 $P < 0.02$	0.880 $P < 0.02$
Females		
4-12	0.532 $P < 0.10$	0.266 NS
4-8	0.625 $P < 0.02$	0.472 $P < 0.10$
8-12	0.944 $P < 0.22$	0.517 $P < 0.10$

TABLE 5

Agreement of Prestige Ranks with Former Studies (Rank Order Correlations)

	Deeg and Paterson [6] *(Males)*	*Baudler and Paterson* [2] *(Females)*
Grade 4	0.868 $P < 0.02$	0.538 $P < 0.02$
8	0.937 $P < 0.02$	0.936 $P < 0.02$
12	0.928 $P < 0.02$	0.964 $P < 0.02$

TABLE 6

Relationship Between Interests and Prestige Ranks

	Group Consensus Ranks *Rho*	*Median Correlation for Individuals* *Rho*	*Range of Correlations for Individuals*	
			Low	*High*
Males				
Grade 4	0.796 $P < 0.02$	0.464 $P < 0.10$	–0.452	1.000
8	0.823 $P < 0.02$	0.655 $P < 0.02$	–0.333	0.963
12	0.789 $P < 0.02$	0.619 $P < 0.02$	–0.279	0.919
Females				
Grade 4	0.789 $P < 0.02$	0.521 $P < 0.10$	–0.008	1.000
8	0.546 $P < 0.02$	0.507 $P < 0.10$	–0.345	0.847
12	0.729 $P < 0.02$	0.810 $P < 0.02$	0.056	0.957

"ignorant" and "fantasy ridden" in their thinking about occupations should be seriously questioned. The children in this study certainly exhibited a higher degree of awareness of occupational prestige than the author expected. The correlation of +0.868 between the fourth-grade males' prestige rankings and the Deeg and Paterson adult rankings implies a high degree of awareness of adult occupational prestige among boys. However, the lower correlation among fourth-grade girls led to a second impression, namely that the development of occupational knowledge may be different for girls than for boys. It should be noted that the fourth-grade girls rank the professions of doctor, artist, and writer quite a bit lower than they do the more clearly feminine occupations of nurse, secretary, and kindergarten teacher. This implies that a femininity dimension may be in operation prior to the development of a general prestige dimension, and that at the earlier age levels this femininity factor may control the ratings of prestige more than does a "professional-to-unskilled" dimension.

The third impression developed by the author is that elementary school children may be far more prepared to receive occupational information than has been assumed previously. The utilization and retention of information is enhanced by a frame of reference which encompasses this information. It would appear that the subjects in this study, as a group, have a prestige frame of reference and hence may be able to integrate more occupational information than they are currently exposed to.

Conclusions and Summary

A study was conducted in which fourth, eighth, and twelfth grade boys and girls were asked to rank a list of occupational titles for prestige and for interest. Separate lists were used for the boys and for the girls. The author concludes the following from an analysis of this data.

1. Fourth-grade boys show a high degree of agreement with adults as to the prestige of occupations (Rho = +0.868). The same level of agreements does not develop among girls until the eighth grade.
2. Test-retest procedures suggest stable group prestige hierarchies over a two-month period.
3. There is a tendency for occupations ranked high in prestige to also be ranked high in interest.

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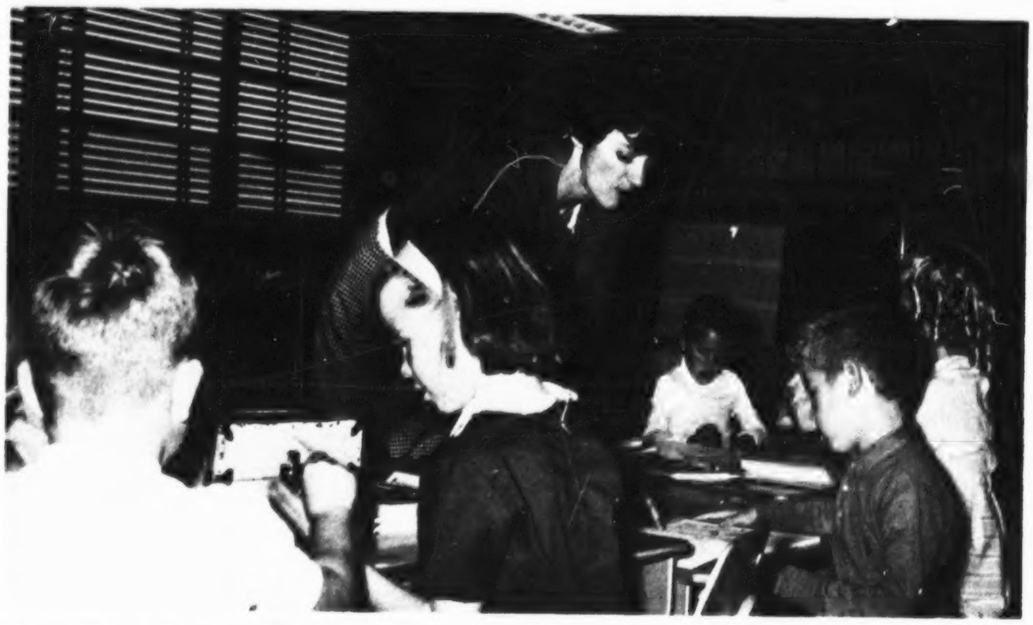
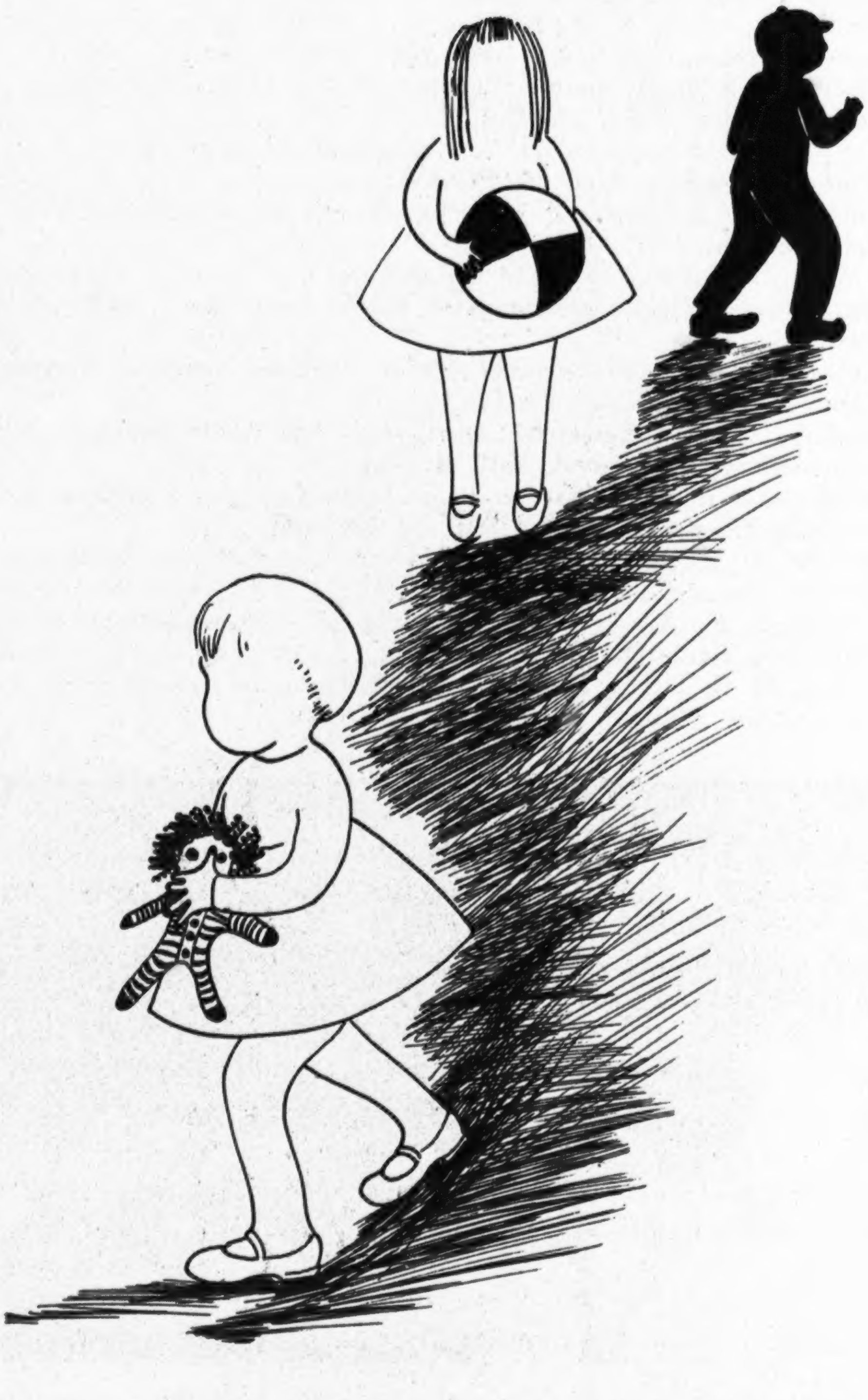


THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER – USING INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP GUIDANCE PROCEDURES



PART 4

Guidance for Social, Personal and Emotional Development of Elementary School Children

The level of a child's personal, social and emotional development will depend in part on the quality of guidance he experiences. Dr. Walter M. Lifton, Co-ordinator of Pupil Personnel Services, Rochester School System, Rochester, New York, expresses a deep concern regarding the number of pressures imposed on young children today which are different in kind and degree from those experienced by children two to four decades ago. His discussion of parent pressures are well-known by teachers, counselors and administrators. He suggests how counselors can help children and adults understand the past, cope with the present, while always striving to improve the future.

Dr. Martin Deutsch, well-known for his recent involvement in work with children of a low socio-economic-educational status, addresses himself to the topic, "Early Social Environment and School Adaptation." His sensitive discussion of what failure means to this group of people leads him to suggest preventive measures of reoccurrence. He stresses the need to discuss the problem of the disadvantaged, to investigate their causes and to delineate all possible solutions and then to implement only those solutions rendered sufficiently sanitary so they represent no threat to the status quo. He concludes by stating: "If social scientists and educators undertake relevant projects jointly, in a spirit of experimentation and with bovicidal collaboration against the accumulated sacred cows, the possibilities of humane success are greatly enhanced."

Social sensitivity in elementary school children was investigated by Vincent R. Rogers and Elizabeth Long of the University of Minnesota. The study was undertaken because little information is available concerning the growth of such feelings as sympathy and concern among elementary school children. The results of the study should help adults understand more fully the quality and level of sympathy and concern most generally expressed by young children.

It has been found in a number of studies that children of low social acceptance tend to display undesirable characteristics, such as showing-off, annoying others, restlessness, feelings of inferiority, nervousness and emotional instability. In view of the research which supported this statement, Dr. Neil Lorer tested the hypothesis: Children socially unacceptable to their classmates tend to manifest poor behavior in the classroom, characterized by disruptive, attentive-seeking actions. Poor behavior according to Lorer was defined as behavior incompatible with and undesirable in the best interest of the educational success and effective operation of a class. The investigation involved nine fifth- and sixth-grade classes, whose members generally achieve below grade level, in a low socio-economic urban community. The procedures used in the study, the analysis of the data and conclusions made are clearly stated. Dr. Lorer summarizes his findings:

> Socially unsuccessful children, reacting to their social distress through the manifestation of unapproved and inappropriate public behavior, should be guided toward more effective and acceptable means of resolving and responding to their social problems and toward more constructive ways of reacting to frustration. Disruptive, attention-seeking actions produce, at best, merely insignificant and fleeting moments of social recognition, and in the long range perspective, impair the positive development of rewarding interpersonal relations and satisfactory social living.

Much attention has been given to children from deprived environments in recent years. Support to alter conditions the child experiences in a disadvantaged home has come from the federal, state and local government and from various private foundations. A number of school districts throughout the nation are conducting important research, the results of which should assist in directing new programs for overcoming the present conditions. Such research is being conducted in New York City. Four researchers investigated the achievement functioning of lower-class Negro children. They were Judith W. Greenberg, Joan M. Gerver, Jeanne Chall and Helen Davidson. They investigated the attitudes of children from a deprived environment toward achievement-related concepts. The report included in this volume is part of an on-going investigation. All who deal with the disadvantaged child will find this paper of special interest and value in their work with this segment of society.

Personality qualities of elementary school children and their relationship to certain achievement variables were studied by Professors Arnold H. Matlin and Francis A. Mendelsohn. They point out that the nonintellectual factors in academic achievement have long been discussed and that one such factor often linked with scholastic achievement is personality adjustment. Their findings and the results of other research studies suggest a significant relationship between personality factors and scholastic achievement of children and adults.

Few studies, however, have dealt with the effect of personality factors and academic achievement at the elementary school level. In the Matlin-Mendelsohn study, it was found that adjustment was strongly related to teachers' grades but not to scores on standardized tests. They conclude that personality variables may indirectly affect school grades at this level because teachers tend to base their grades on adjustment as well as accomplishment.

Dr. Rolf Muuss presents the findings of his study designed to investigate the relationship between causality and such indexes of mental health as anxiety and insecurity in fifth- and sixth-grade children. Muuss states that causality constitutes the theoretical framework of the preventive psychiatry program at the State University of Iowa. The preventive psychiatry program is designed to investigate the extent to which causal orientation contributes to mental health, and whether and to what extent an experimental learning program emphasizing the causal nature of human behavior produces causally oriented subjects.

Causality, according to Muuss, is defined as an understanding and appreciation of the dynamic, complex and interesting nature of the forces that operate in human behavior. It involves an attitude of flexibility, of seeing things from the viewpoint of others, as well as an awareness of the probabilistic nature of knowledge. It is assumed that a person who is aware of the dynamic and causal nature of human behavior is better able to solve his own problems and to meet social situations. The study reported here investigated a limited aspect of this assumption. The findings and conclusions reported in this paper have important implications for the elementary school counselor, teacher and administrator.

The factors which affect the development of cooperation in children was investigated by Alex F. Perrodin. He begins his paper by stating that "Teachers are constantly making judgments as to the degree of cooperation manifested by their pupils. When children are cooperative, teaching is a most enjoyable task. But what factors affect the development of this trait so highly characteristic of a democratic citizen? To what extent do various factors of home, community, and school life affect the development of a child?"

Dr. Perrodin studied three hundred fifty-two children enrolled in fourth through seventh grades of an elementary school. The school was located in a small southern city and the pupils came from mixed socioeconomic backgrounds. In his findings he discusses the relationship of certain factors of home, community and school life to the development of cooperation in children.

SOCIAL FORCES AND GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Walter M. Lifton

It is the purpose of this paper* to briefly summarize some of the societal pressures existing today which are different in kind or degree from those experienced by many of you in your formative years. For example, how many times have you heard people remark "I'm glad I went to school when I did. I doubt if I could master the subjects children study these days."

Through statements such as this, adults reflect their awareness of the increasing pressures faced by youngsters today. The teacher in the third grade, who now teaches sets, functions, and relations in math, cannot escape the realization that times have indeed changed.

One can only speculate on the effect on learning caused by the rapid growth of teaching machines, mass instructional aids like educational TV, and the multi-media approach to instruction. It is interesting to note, for example, that the rapid growth in elementary guidance in one community has been directly traced to an administrative need to have at least one person know the child intimately. Movement from the self-contained classroom to a departmentalized approach in the elementary grades not only depersonalizes the student-teacher relationship but also

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puts a heavy premium on a child's ability to adjust to rapidly changing limits, personalities, and group climate. The more diverse elements a youngster needs to cope with, the more likely it will be that the motivation for achievement will have to be rooted in discrete subject areas rather than the desire for teacher approval or enjoyment of a comfortable learning situation.

Flexibility Is Necessary

The organizational structure of the school thus may be demanding greater student flexibility at the same time that it demands that he make critical decisions at ever lower grade levels. If he takes foreign languages in the sixth grade, will it improve his chances of getting into college? Is Latin better than French? This emphasis on the need for flexibility and intrinsic security, along with restrictive decision making, can also be seen in another significant sector of the environment.

How many of you can remember the numberless times you were asked by aunts, uncles, and other assorted adults what you wanted to be when you grew up? This adult concern was consistent with a society worried about square pegs in round holes. A man's job title represented his status in the community, his daily satisfactions, and his claim to economic security. We are now, however, in an economy where John Diebold [1] and Seymour Wolfbein, among others, tell us that each youngster will have between 3-5 careers in a lifetime.

Security in an era of automation will depend, not on a specific job title, but on the ability of the youngster to realistically assess his abilities, his awareness of current occupational possibilities, and his skill in translating past experiences to meet current needs. As he chooses adult models he frequently also accepts their job title as desirable.

Models Are Important

So it develops that youngsters in the elementary schools need two conflicting kinds of help. On one hand they need to develop an acceptance of the job family concept, required for adjusting to a rapidly changing society.

At this point, one might well inquire about the heroes used as role models today. As in the other areas examined, here too, change is evident. If one were to read just the results of the research by Deeg and Patterson [2], Welch [3], and others who use a forced ranking of occupational titles, little change in rankings would be noticeable. If, however, one examines data from studies like Stefflre's [4], Dipboye's [5], or Project Talent [6], a different picture emerges. Although in the ninth grade engineering is the field chosen most frequently, a college population reveals that business, formerly ranked low on the scale, has usurped engineering as a major career interest. So too with girls. In the ninth grade girls select nursing as first choice. In college they switch to education with nearly half of all women's degrees awarded in that field.

Last year the *Saturday Evening Post* made a youth survey. It found that 85 per cent of all entering high school students want to go to college. About 58 per cent really plan on going, but most of them underestimate the cost. About 50 per cent plan to work their way through college, in whole or in part. Actually some 40 per cent of all high school students drop out of school without a diploma.

The Roper polls document that 18% of those questioned had preferences toward one of the professions, but only 6% actually reached their goal. Conversely, 15% became factory workers, while only 1% had expressed such a choice when young.

Why this drastic shift in careers? Is it, as some of our colleagues suggest, just a function of maturation and reality testing? This author thinks not, and he has some evidence to back up his opinion. As reported in *Introducing the World of Work to Children* [7], studies tapping teacher occupational knowledge, and jobs mentioned in elementary texts and fiction books, provide youngsters with the most information about the jobs they are least likely to get.

In other words, from teachers, texts, and society, youngsters learn most about professions and least about the skilled trades. It is not surprising, therefore, that adult-inspired career goals of youngsters need to give way to reality factors as the day for job selection approaches.

Some Interesting Facts

A close inspection of the problem of the role model used by present day youngsters reveals some interesting facts. Horatio Alger's heroes now tend to be replaced by the most visible person or the person with whom the youngster can most easily identify. It is not surprising to discover that adolescents turn to personalities made famous through their activities in space flight, TV broadcasts, or because of their unique racial or national characteristics.

One basic requirement of a hero is that he be discoverable. The slum children, the suburban children, the Negro children, the orphan children, the city and rural children will find him in a dozen different places, for as they grow up they are confronted with slices of society so varied as to be almost from different pies. The same heroes simply are not visible to all groups.

If this is cause for concern, it immediately suggests that guidance people need to take an active role in publicizing desirable role models to populations now using antisocial models. Obviously, teacher bias and unrepresentative treatment of minority groups in published texts are all objects of concern if, as professionals, we seek to have societal influences maximize guidance objectives.

This paper, as presented so far, would suggest that the major culprits in destroying students' vocational development are teachers and books. Let's, however, take a look at how closely guidance people are tuned in to youngsters' perceptions and needs.

Some time ago a group of guidance experts met to establish criteria for guidance materials to be used with junior high school youngsters. Two of their recommendations are of special interest. Feeling that employment was many years away for this group, guidance practitioners suggested that occupational materials not list current salaries or employment figures, data which would be inaccurate 6 to 8 years hence. The logic made good sense but it overlooked the youngsters' societal experiences and needs.

To check for the actual concerns of students, a study was conducted by the author's associates in which we asked junior high youngsters to select a job of high interest to them, and to then write about the job in a way they thought would interest their peer group. An analysis of these essays showed that the students included facts about salary and job opportunities as rank order one and two in the charcteristics they chose to write about.

In other words, these students had learned from parents and society that monetary rewards and possibilities for employment were critical in job choice. If one accepts the maxim that one should meet the client at the point of his need, guidance people were functioning on the wrong channel.

Parents Pressure Children

Because of time limitations, let us now move to the last area to be considered. Let's examine typical pressures on children coming from their parents. It is truly difficult to find parents who do not want their children to move up the socio-economic ladder. Even if parental strivings were not enough, the current rash of articles on the importance of a college education would create pressure toward high level occupational goals.

Lacking information about the world of work or education beyond his own level, the parent tries to motivate his child by painting the status quo as undesirable. "Do you want to slave like me, don't you want to amount to something?" Unwittingly, by deprecating his own status the parent is sowing the seeds for later trouble. Youngsters whose motivation is based on an escape from something, rather than attraction toward a desirable goal, tend to use large portions of their potential energy coping with their anxiety about the future. Feeling that they and their parents are worthless in our society, they react with frustration and sometimes with aggression.

Ultimately, to reach adult status, they are forced to dissociate themselves from their parents before they can be free to be themselves. Clearly parents need help in learning new ways to motivate youngsters. Without doubt they are unaware of the way they are currently laying the foundation for their later rejection by their children.

Counselors Can Help

Here as in the other areas guidance people can help. Giving recognition to the jobs held by the parents of their students not only helps children learn that all people are important and worthwhile, but at the same time, by helping parents feel accepted by society, the parent is free to let the youngster consider his future career without the hampering effects of parental demands.

Parents need help too, in understanding current employment patterns and training levels required. Parents need to realize that, although post high school training is desirable, attendance at college is not mandatory for securing a job or receiving recognition. Similarly they need to face realistically the growing need for technicians along with the ever higher hurdles for college admission.

Junior colleges, according to estimates, will house one out of every two students by 1970. This relatively new institution will have an ever widening impact on our society. As guidance people we need to take an active role in shaping the direction of this new institution.

An Enviable Role

There are some people who get a sense of accomplishment when they can discover the cause of a problem and create a label to identify it. This should not be enough for guidance people. This paper has attempted to show how society, parents, and counselors are contributing to the elementary schools child's developing self concept. Where these influences have been cited as destructive, specific suggestions for alternate behaviors have been suggested.

Guidance people at the elementary level can ill afford to isolate themselves in an office and overlook their responsibility to help change the environment. This is true despite their responsibility to help youngsters learn to cope with the status quo. Guidance people have the enviable role of helping people understand the past, cope with the present, while ever striving to improve the future.

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EARLY SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT AND SCHOOL ADAPTATION

MARTIN DEUTSCH

This paper will make no attempt to incorporate the total complex of social institutions involved in school failure, for this can lead only to a loss of the direction necessary to the carving out of relevant and malleable chunks of the problem. For this reason, the focus will be largely on the school, an institution that in itself cannot initiate major social change, but one which can play a determining role in orienting its products. The school, is after all, the only social institution which has some contact with *all* children.

There is variation in the impact of this contact from group to group, fostered through (1) the child's preparation by his parents for entry

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into school, (2) the general meaning of the school to the economic substance of the community, and (3) the various expectations of the school and the appropriateness of its curriculum for the child. These differences in the interaction among the child, the school, and the community are determined, among other things, by social attitudes toward education, stability of community, the social class and ethnic membership of family, and the sex of child.

Generally speaking, the middle-class child is more likely to have the importance of school imprinted in his consciousness from the earliest possible age. This is not necessarily bad or good for the child or the school, but it is very different from the preparation of the lower social status child. I have never seen a school curriculum that is organized on the basis of the existence of these differences. Both sets of children are typically asked to climb the same mountain at the same rate, as if they had similar prior experience and training. The lower-class child, because of poorer preparation, is at a real disadvantage in this exercise although it is the middle-class child who probably has more personal anxiety about the success of his climb. The middle-class child, however, has available to him other avenues for handling the school situation. There is more likely to be contínguity from the school's orientation to his home-and-family orientation. Failure can be interpreted to him in appropriate and familiar terms, and methods of coping with it can be incorporated, increasing the motivation or offering the necessary rewards, incentives, or punishments to effect the desired changes in performance. For the middle-class child, the school is very central and is continuous with the totality of his life experiences. As a result, there are few incongruities between his school experiences and any others he is likley to have had, and there are intrinsic motivating and moulding properties in the school situation to which he has already been highly sensitized.

What Failure Means

For the lower-class child, there is not the same continguity or continuity, and he does not have the same coping mechanisms for internalizing success or psychologically surviving failure in formal learning. [If the lower-class child starts to fail, he does not have the same kinds of operationally significant and functionally relevant support from his family or community – or from the school – that his counterpart has. Further, because of the differences in preparation, he is more likely to experience failure. It may even be that both groups are equally motivated quantitatively; but failure or lack of recognition for the middle-class child may only serve to channel his energies more narrowly, whereas for the lower-class child, it early becomes dysfunctional, converting the original motivation into a rejection of intellectual striving.]

Failure in school for the middle-class child can be more personally disorganizing because the continuity of values from home to school insures that such a child will be considered a failure in both places. As already pointed out, however, there are also more resources available for helping the child to cope with the failure and to recover from it, and to mitigate its degree.

For the lower-class child, school failure may result in less personal upset or disturbance but may be more final, both in the recovery of adequate functioning in school and in occupational choices. Such failure may have the result of gradually but effectively alienating the child from the school and the structure of opportunities associated with it. In addition, though lower-class parents may or may not be opposed to the specific act involved in the child's leaving school prematurely, they may have made clear to the child their own negative affect in response to their personal experiences with social institutions. Particularly the minority-group lower-class parent is likely to explain, rationalize, and attribute job and economic frustration, both correctly and incorrectly, to impersonal societal institutions. He may thus identify, accurately and inaccurately, these same institutions with his child's troubles in school. Such negative attitudes can rapidly, though perhaps inadvertently, be generalized to the whole school-learning process. This kind of constellation has particular significance where the school system operates as a bureaucratic mechanism, isolated from the community and unable to counteract the consequences of inadequate preparation for functioning in the school factory. So the school, at the time the child decides to leave it, has little influence with either the child or the parent, and even if it did, it is frequently just not programed for interpreting its own processes to children or adults from outside the middle class.

Call for Prevention

Thus, if the school is to influence the continued attendance of children, the influence must begin and the channels for its transmission must be opened well before failure and dropout problems arise.[1] This brings us to the first contact of the child and his parents with the school. The process of alienation or, on the other hand, of increasing rapport, begins here. It is at this level that certain crucial questions must be asked: First, is the child intellectually and psychologically ready for the school experience, for the specific curriculum, and for the demands of comprehension, communication, motor control, and timing made by the school? The reference here is not to specific "readiness" as the term has been characteristically used in educational circles but, rather, to the socio-cognitive preparations and anticipations of the child for this new experience. Next, are the parents helped to become aware of the school's purpose, the nature of its demands on the child, and how they – even if uneducated – can play a meaningful role in the education of their child? Is the school accessible to these parents? In other words, is it a place which stimulates embarrassment for their ignorance and fear of its power, or is it a center for comfortable relationships and a sharing of their interest in their child?

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[1] Of course, not all dropouts are school failures (and there might even be instances when high-performance creative children *should* drop out of school — but that is another paper), but the evidence suggests that the majority are. Similarly, of course, all dropouts are not lower-status children. But again, the majority are, and I would postulate that with middle-class children there is a higher incidence among the dropouts of psychological malfunctioning, while with lower status children, it is more likely to be associated with socio-cognitive dissonance, and general problems of communication.

In this interaction among three elements, what about the school itself – the third element? Is it a structure that the community can be proud of and where the staff can share this pride? Does it have teachers and administrators who see a challenge, or are they interested only in securing discipline and in surviving the day? Do they have some understanding of the social backgrounds of their children and the temporary educational limitations that may have been imposed by these backgrounds? Is there a reasonable amount of staff stability, particularly in the early years? And is there some attempt to adjust the curriculum and primers to current life realities?

Lower-class Alienation

The answers to these questions we all really know. The experiences of the child from the disadvantaged background simply do not prepare him for successful school performance. The teacher has, more often than not, *not* been trained in the sociology of learning; and also, more often than not, her training fails to give her a sense of challenge in teaching children, particularly those who start out with handicaps. Usually, she prefers, both by training and personal inclination, the immediately bright responsive child who also most likely places a type of demand on her professional skills which is more congruent with the orientation of her training. The schools are likely to be underequipped, closed to the children for after-school experimentation with extracurricular books and arts and crafts, and closed to the community as evening centers for learning and socializing. Nobody is responsible for explaining to the parents how they can help or be important factors in the education of their child, and the whole process of their child's education – even for the few who become active in the PTA – remains foreign and alien to them. Often, their contact with the school carries a condescending quality. The early curriculum is likely to be unfamiliar and experimentally discontinuous, while the primer, despite all criticism, is still most likely to be boring, repetitious, suburban, and altogether too white.

What have been stated here, of course, are some of the major problems of getting a grip on children from social and cultural backgrounds which do not participate in the middle-class values of the school. These problems are raised not because it is now fashionable to identify them as the source of all of our current social difficulties but because they define human realities we are just beginning to face in relation to our educational ideals. We cannot avoid the necessary focus on the early relationship among the child, the family, and the school, and on the transition between the preschool environment and the school. These factors are crucial if we mean what we say about universal education and educational opportunity.

Considering all these combinations, factors, and circumstances, it is amazing that as many children as do still find sufficient relevance in the school experience to remain. Parenthetically, it must be noted that the real occupational expectations of lower-class children are more congruent with their homes and their community experiences than they are with the school setting. It may be that only as school is perceived as more functionally relevant to adult occupations that early negative experiences can become decreasingly influential in the decision to leave school. Here is not meant that the Conant solution of simply more vocational high schools but, rather, the *same opportunity distribution for all populations,* regardless of subgroup membership.

There are many possible avenues through which solutions for these problems could be evolved. But none of them exists independently, and any successful solution must involve a confluence of institutional changes on the level of the child, of the curriculum, of teacher preparation, adequate economic support for schools, and community-school bridges with two-way traffic. Nevertheless, there are certain possibilities for social intervention on the child level that may open individual escape hatches and that may require only minimal changes in the structures and processes of current school operation. The most important of these areas of social intervention, and one that comes least into conflict with existing institutionalized barricades to change, is that of an intensive, highly focused preschool training program.

Ripeness Is All

From present data, it cannot be said definitely that there is any direct relationship between early school experience and the school dropout; but I hypothesize a very strong relationship between the first school experiences of the child and academic success or failure, and that the more invariant the school experience is, the more important is the early experience to the academic success of the child. I also hypothesize that children who have had preschool and kindergarten experience are more likely to cope appropriately with the kinds of things the school demands intellectually than are children who have not had this kind of previous experience. This would be particularly true for children from lower socioeconomic groups, and it would be most true for children who come from the most peripheral groups in our society.

For example, what happens when a child from these groups comes to school for the first time in the first grade? If he has not had experience with books, with the kinds of perceptual and developmental demands that are made by the school, and with the kinds of language skills implicit in the nature of the communication that comes from the teacher to the child, then that child's chances of starting to fail within the school situation are greatly enhanced. It is common in the first grade for a teacher to talk to the class for a period of ten minutes or so. Yet very often these children have never before experienced a ten-minute-long speech sequence coming from an adult to a child. So in school, at the very beginning, the child experiences "foreign" information coming in at a rapid rate, requiring complex auditory differentiations for which life has not suitably programed him. What is likely to happen in this process, and fairly immediately, is that the youngster will start to look upon school as a place where he doesn't understand and where he experiences debilitating failure. Perhaps more important, the teacher often starts to build in expectations of the child's failing. It is probable that, at a very early age, the child perceives this expectation of failure. And the children who are most likely to have these expectations directed toward them are children who come with the fewest aptitudes for fulfilling a middle-class set of values. They tend to be the most poorly dressed, to have a dialect, to come to school somewhat late, and, in general, not to fit naturally into the kinds of middle-class constraints and constrictions that are established within the school system.

The child who comes to school with very few of the kinds of intellectual cognitive structures that it demands will be basically the most susceptible to this process of failing, and he will be the least likely to start communicating with the teacher. The critical question, then, is whether a child can at least begin the educational process by learning the basic skills. In order to accomplish this for children from socially marginal backgrounds, some kind of antecedent experience to compensate for the inadequacies within their homes and in their intimate social environments would be highly likely to help them achieve a positive adjustment to the demands of the school. (The use of the term "adjustment" here is not meant to imply adjustment to the social aspects of the school process, or to the conformity pressures of the school. Such questions are beyond the scope of this paper.)

Leveling Upward

A good preschool program would attempt to bring the lower-class child to a kind of parity with the preparation for school that the home, community, and at least relative affluence characteristically give to the middle-class child. Such programs could only be set up after intensive training of teachers and staff to work on the problems of communicating with parents as well as developing methods and techniques for compensating the youngsters for a narrowness of experiential variation. The attempt would be to enrich those developmental areas most functional and operative in the school situation, thereby establishing both cognitive and attitudinal continuity between the preschool and school years. Hopefully, because the child is most responsive to acquiring basic skills at pre- and early-school ages, these skills can be fostered with reasonable readiness, and their acquisition can thus help lay the basis for a reduction in school failure experiences and for an increase in school success. The skills involved include, for example, the visual and auditory perception which underlies reading, language abilities, spatial and temporal orientation, general information, familiarity with books, toys, and games, and the development of a sustained curiosity. In addition, the attempt must be made to engage the child as an active participant in the learning process rather than as a passive recipient of a school experience.

School vs. Home

In facilitating the learning process in underprivileged youngsters, the school must expect frequently to do a portion of the job traditionally assigned to the home, and the curriculum must be reorganized to provide for establishing a solid base for the special learnings that are necessary.

It is important to emphasize that the early training recommended here is not a matter of inculcating middle-class values but, rather, of reinforcing the development of those underlying skills that are operationally appropriate and necessary for both successful and psychologically pleasant school learning experiences. The fact that these skills are almost routinely stimulated in middle-class homes does not mean that in content they are middle class. For instance, there is nothing fundamentally culturally loaded in a good or poor memory, but it can be awfully important in preparing for an examination.

Another question must also be considered: How are the child's first anticipations developed toward the school? It is often stated that among Negro parents there is low motivation toward school accomplishment. I have not found this so. I've found a great degree of motivation, but a lack of understanding of how instrumentally to make these aspirations operative for the child. The problem, then, is to interpret for the child the kind of behavior that will make it possible for him to function well and to cope with the school's mechanisms. One way this could be handled is through a direct relationship between the teacher and the community. For example, there are some communities where the school is seen as a major and central resource center. Where it is kept open in the evening, there are library books that can be taken out, and the school can be favorably perceived as a place of social transition. When the school is a real part of his life and of his community, the child can more normally enjoy the opportunity some day to decide if he wants to move toward a learning experience consistent with the demands of the school, if he wants to stop with a lower level of education, or if he wants to seek advancement in some type of vocation with skills less closely related to the requirements of formal schooling.

To return more directly to the problem of anticipations toward the school, there is reason to believe that the sense of failure that often develops at an early stage projects itself through the total experiences of the persons — not only temporally, in terms of his reactions to the demands of the school, but also in terms of his whole concept of self-identification, of a positive self-concept, of the development of a sense of dignity. This sense of dignity, I think, is closely related to how much money, how much concern, and how much institutional modification we are willing to invest in education. In neighborhoods where most schools have practically every window broken, there are some protected schools which are beautifully kept. There is a reciprocal feedback, as if the institution and the children were working with and cooperating with one another, and there is a sense of mutual respect that goes along with it. Here too, of course, is where teacher training in community sociology and mental health becomes a very important issue.

Horizons and goals are stimulated early in life; and if the parents have had low ceilings because of impoverished experiences, having known job insecurity, humiliating negotiations with welfare agencies and landlords, and the like, there is not much left to give the child a sense of identifying himself with goals that entail initiative and disciplining. This problem, in a larger context, is societal and has its analogous aspects in the routinized existence of much of the middle-class, rigid schedules, automated work, and cities and suburbs that share an ugly sameness and drabness. Sometimes the excitement to be sparked in a child must reach his subjective self, his imaginative and individual poetry. After this, he may make discriminations and differentiations not seen by his peers in the external world. This development of the inner self, which can certainly start soon after the development of language, can be an intrinsic part of the preschool experience and, possibly, a basis for much later motivation.

Female Dropouts

It is often in school that another element of the dropout problem, related to a different type of discrimination, takes form – and is regularly ignored. There is a special complex of difficulties associated with the female dropout. Typically, discussions of dropouts deal with all cases as an undifferentiated totality or concentrate on males without recognizing that many of the factors responsible for high dropout rates among Indian Americans, Negro Americans, etc., are similar to those operating on girls. At some undefined point, our social expectations as reflected through our teachers become differentiated with respect to intellectual behavior in boys and girls. This is probably not always a conscious distinction, but males of any social class are more or less expected to have to use their intellects in the business of preparing to make a living. For females, this assumption is less likely to be made, and the antecedent attitudes are probably manifested in the preschool and kindergarten. I know of no data here, but there is no other known area of strongly ingrained social attitudes and expectations which is completely discontinuous with earlier, though not necessarily discernible, orientations. It seems improbable that these sex-related expectations would develop only in the later school years. A high proportion of female school dropouts, then, are apt to be intellectually average girls who enjoy, proportionate to the boys, more academic success but still feel that intellectual development and their personal futures go along divergent paths. With society increasingly needing skilled people, the distinction between male and female intellectual roles must be explicitly eliminated early in the learning process if the later effects are to be minimized and if school is to offer the same potential to children regardless of sex.

The emphasis voiced here on the preschool program as a means of accommodation between the school, the child, and his family represents, it is felt, a necessary approach to the dropout problem. It is beyond our present scope to examine it from the other end of the continuum: The problem of the motivation of the high school student to join the labor force when the opportunities available to him may not be numerous or productive. Further, the high incidence of minority-group dropouts makes necessary a consideration of prejudice in employment patterns. But these are broad societal problems, to be attacked and solved in the social arena. And even if they were solved, the individual problems of the unprepared child coming into the unpreparing school would assume even greater importance. Developmentally, it would seem that preschool experience is one of the first areas in which to approach the problem, and one in which there may be less resistance.

There seems to be a great need currently to discuss all problems thoroughly, to investigate their causes, and to delineate all possible solutions; and then to implement only those solutions that have been rendered sufficiently sanitary that they represent no threat to the status quo. The danger to the approach discussed here is that it will be put into the context of the stress-free, allegedly supportive, momistically-oriented, deintellectualized enclosures where much of early childhood education is both considered and carried out. If such takes place, social experimentation would be sterilized and useless. But if social scientists and educators undertake relevant projects jointly, in a spirit of experimentation and with bovicidal collaboration against the accumulated sacred cows, the possibilities of humane success are greatly enhanced.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SENSITIVITY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

VINCENT R. ROGERS and ELIZABETH LONG

It is perhaps ironic that our social scientists have concentrated for so many years on a study of the most negative types of human beings. As Pitirim Sorokin (9) put its, we have been cultivating "an ever increasing study of crime and criminals; of insanity and the insane; of sex perversion and perverts; of hypocrisy and hypocrites. . . . The criminal has been researched incomparably more than the saint or altruist. The result is that our social scientists know little about positive types of persons, their conduct and relationships."

Given an increasingly complex impersonal world, the need to develop the "positive type," i.e., the individual who feels a genuine sympathy and concern for other human beings seems exceedingly important. While the amount of attention and financial support given to the study of "negative types" is comparatively huge, the establishment in California of a Center for the Study of Righteous Human Behavior indicates an increasing interest in the altruistic personality, as does the continued support of Sorokin's Harvard Research Center in Creative Altruism.

While there is considerable research dealing with the growth of feelings of sympathy and concern among pre-school children (2, 4, 5, 6) and among college students (1, 3, 7), little information is available concerning the growth of such feelings in elementary school children (8, 10). Research dealing with adult feelings of sympathy and concern for human beings *wherever* they may live (9) seems to indicate that many adult Americans are relatively unconcerned about human misery, tragedy, etc., that occurs any considerable physical distance from them. While we may get relatively excited about a local tragedy, for example, an earthquake in Iran seems to arouse little personal sympathy among us. The purpose of this study then is to measure the extent to which children in grades two, four and six demonstrate feelings of sympathy and concern for people in a series of physical locations progressing from near to far. We are interested in learning more about children's willingness to go out from themselves – to be altruistic – to offer help to people in distress wherever they may be.

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Procedures

The population studied consisted of 188 children attending an elementary school located in a largely middleclass suburb of Minneapolis. Fifty-six second graders, 64 fourth graders and 68 sixth graders were included in the study.

A 27-item paired comparisons "Who Shall We Help?" test was constructed. Children were asked to "contribute" $10.00 to people in need in various localities, categorized as either "near" (our state), "somewhat more distance" (our nation) and "far away" (the world). Children were asked to *imagine* that they had ten dollars to give away in each story. If they wished to help the people in the first part of the story, they were to write $10.00 in the "A" column. If they wished to help the people in the second story they were to write $10.00 in the "B" column. The children were told, for example, that many people in Minnesota were without homes because of a flood (Part A). A storm in India had also left many people homeless (Part B). They were then asked to decide to which group they would prefer to give their $10.00. There were three items in each category, i.e., local, national and international, and each item was compared with every other item on the test. In each case the child was asked to decide to whom he would prefer to give an imaginary ten dollars. One-half of the test was given one day and the second half the following day, each session requiring approximately thirty minutes.

All of the second-grade children were tested and then re-tested two weeks later in an effort to determine the reliability of the instrument. A high degree of consistency was found, indicating that the instrument is reasonably reliable. (See TABLE 1). Approximately one week following the administration of the test, an informal discussion was held with the second graders to ascertain their reasons for giving away their money as they did; the fourth and sixth graders wrote a short paragraph in which they were asked to tell to whom they gave most of their money

TABLE 1

Consistency of the Desires of Second-Grade Children to Aid People on Re-test Following Two Week Delay

Identical Choices	539	87%
Different Choices	82	13%
Total	621	
Subjects	23	

and why they did so. The children's responses indicated that they were, in fact, concerned about people and their problems rather than merely expressing an interest in the exotic. (See TABLES 2 and 3).

TABLE 2

Distribution of Answers of Fourth-Grade Children to Questionnaire

	Reason	Number	Percent
Gave most to the State		0	0
Gave most to the Nation		6	10
Because we must keep our country strong	6		
Gave most to the World		58	90
Because they are poorer than the U. S.	48		
Because there are more people in the World	6		
Because we should not just think of our own country	3		
Because our country could make friends that way	1		
Subjects		64	100

TABLE 3

Distribution of Answers of Sixth-Grade Children to Questionnaire

	Reason	Number	Percent
Gave most to the State		2	3
Because our own state should be strong	2		
Gave most to the Nation		4	6
Because we must keep our country strong	4		
Gave most to the World		62	91
Because they are poorer than the the U. S.	58		
Because our country could make friends that way	4		
Subjects		68	100

Results and Discussion

Second-grade children demonstrated a significant concern for people in other parts of the world. When deciding between their state versus the world, and their nation versus the world, they indicated that despite physical distance these people would need their financial help to a greater degree than would people near home. (See TABLE 4).

Children in grades four and six are even more emphatic in their expressed desires to aid people in need that are far from home. (See TABLES 5 and 6).

The greatest growth in concern for people. farther away seems to occur between grades two and four. There is apparently little change between grades four and six. (See TABLES 7 and 8).

TABLE 4

Expressed Desires of Second-Grade Children to Aid People in Need

	Total	Number	Proportion	Critical Ratio
State vs. Nation	504	265-239	53-47	1.36
State vs. *World*	504	219-285	43-57	1.36**
Nation vs. *World*	504	210-294	42-58	3.63***

TABLE 5

Expressed Desires of Fourth-Grade Children to Aid People in Need

	Total	Number	Proportion	Critical Ratio
State vs. *Nation*	576	212-364	37-63	6.19***
State vs. *World*	576	150-426	26-74	11.43***
Nation vs. *World*	576	137-439	24-76	12.38***

TABLE 6

Expressed Desires of Sixth-Grade Children to Aid People in Need

	Total	Number	Proportion	Critical Ratio
State vs. *Nation*	612	284-328	46-54	2.00*
State vs. *World*	612	136-476	22-78	14.00***
Nation vs. *World*	612	136-476	22-78	14.00***

Note: One Asterisk (*) indicates significance at the five percent level or greater, two asterisks (**) indicate significance at the one percent level or greater, and three asterisks (***) indicate significance at the .001 level or greater. Whenever the difference in preferences is significant the preferred category is italicized.

TABLE 7

Expressed Desires of Second-Grade Children to Aid People in Need vs. Expressed Desires of Fourth-Grade Children to Aid People in Need

	Second Grade Proportions	Fourth Grade Proportions	Critical Ratio
State vs. Nation	53-47	37-63	3.33***
State vs. World	43-57	26-74	5.66***
Nation vs. World	42-58	24-76	6.00***

TABLE 8

Expressed Desires of Fourth-Grade Children to Aid People in Need vs. Expressed Desires of Sixth-Grade Children to Aid People in Need

	Fourth Grade Proportions	Sixth Grade Proportions	Critical Ratio
State vs. Nation	37-63	46-54	3.13**
State vs. World	26-74	22-78	1.38
Nation vs. World	24-76	22-78	.69

Fourth- and sixth-grade children seemed eager to help other countries largely because they perceive the rest of the world as "poor." Similarly, they (as with the second graders) saw little existing need in either their home state or in the United States. Our country is perceived as "rich" by these suburban boys and girls.

We found results, then, most encouraging in the general sense, assuming that one agrees that the development of feelings of sympathy and concern for human beings everywhere is a desirable goal of social studies education. The study raises interesting questions, however, concerning the possible continued growth (or lack of growth) of such feelings as children grow into adulthood.

Summary

While there has been considerable research dealing with the "negative type" in our society, little has been done to investigate the growth of feelings of sympathy and concern in elementary-school children. More specifically, this study was concerned with the extent to which these children might demonstrate feelings of concern for people in far away places when forced to choose between helping "foreigners" and people closer to home. A "Who Shall We Help?" test was constructed which attempted to measure children's willingness to give such help. One hundred eighty-eight children were tested at grade levels two, four and six. The writers concluded that children at all of the grade levels tested expressed considerable concern for people in far off places with the greatest growth occurring between grades two and four. A great majority of children at all grade levels perceive the United States as "rich" and in little need of financial help. The other countries included on the test were largely perceived as "poor."

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INADEQUATE SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE AND DISRUPTIVE CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

NEIL M. LORBER

A review of selected literature has indicated that: (1) Children of high social acceptance tend to possess desirable, positive personality characteristics while those of low social acceptance tend to lack them.[1,2,3,4] (2) Children of high social acceptance tend to actively participate and cooperate socially, with a tendency to conform, while those of low social acceptance do not.[5,6,7] (3) Children of low social acceptance tend to display undesirable characteristics, such as showing-off, annoying others, restlessness, feelings of inferiority, nervousness, and emotional instability.[8,9,10] With initial support drawn from the latter findings, this investigation proposed to test the following hypothesis: Children socially unacceptable to their classmates tend to manifest poor behavior in the classroom characterized by disruptive, attention-seeking actions. Poor behavior was considered behavior incompatible with and undesirable in the best interest of the educational success and effective operation of a class. The investigation involved nine fifth and sixth grade classes, generally achieving below grade level, in a low socio-economic urban community. The incidence of children presenting classroom behavior problems was relatively high.

Procedures

Using the results of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale,[11] subjects were classified into one of three approximately equal groups on the basis of whether their social acceptance scores were high, medial, or low in relation to the rank-ordered scores of their classmates. Teacher ratings were obtained for every subject on each of the five following personality considerations: Relationship With Other Children, Attitude Toward Group Control, Need For Attention, Stability, and Aggressiveness. Ratings were based on observed classroom behavior. Using a scale of 1 to 100, a numerical expression of the collective character of each subject's ratings in the five personality categories considered was derived, giving equal weight to each category. This numerical expression (or "behavior score") was considered adequately representative of his general classroom behavior. Mean behavior scores for subjects in the high,

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medial, and low social acceptance classifications were determined and compared.

Subsequently, every subject's teacher ratings in the sub-categories of each of the five personality considerations were, themselves, examined (see Table 1). This analysis indicated the extent of the respective contributions of these ratings to his total "behavior score." Percentage means based on this data were determined for each social acceptance group and compared.

Findings

Comparison of mean behavior scores for the high, medial, and low social acceptance groups showed the high social acceptance group to have somewhat better classroom behavior ratings (higher behavior scores) than the median social acceptance group and appreciably better classroom behavior ratings than the low social acceptance group. Differences between the mean scores of 89.1, 83.2, and 70.4 for the three groups respectively, were significant at the .01 level of confidence. In other words, the data showed children of low social acceptance to evidence poorer teacher ratings on general behavior than children of medial and high social acceptance.

The analysis of teacher ratings (see Table 1) indicated that in three of the personality categories pronounced differences (significant at the .01 level of confidence) existed between ratings for subjects in the low social acceptance group and ratings for subjects in the medial and high social acceptance groups. In these categories (Attitude Toward Group Control, Need For Attention, and Stability), the low social acceptance group showed appreciably poorer (less favorable) teacher ratings than the medial and, especially, the high social acceptance group. In regard to "Attitude Toward Group Control," a greater incidence of children rated as exhibiting resentment toward group control were members of the low social acceptance group than were members of the medial and, especially, the high social acceptance group. Regarding "Need For Attention," the low social acceptance group showed a decidedly greater incidence of children rated as attention-seekers than the medial and high social acceptance groups. As for "Stability," the low social acceptance group contained the greatest number of children rated as lacking self-control and as having temper outbursts in school.

Concerning "Relationship With Other Children," significant but less pronounced differences were found to exist between ratings for subjects in the low acceptance group and ratings for subjects in the medial and high social acceptance groups. In this category, the low social acceptance

TABLE 1

Percent of Teacher Ratings in Personality Area Sub-Categories for Social Acceptance Groups

		Social Acceptance Groups		
		High	Medial	Low
1. Relationship With Other Children	A. Works and plays well with others	97	96	82
	B. Doesn't get along well with others	3	4	18
2. Attitude Toward Group Control	A. Usually non-conforming	0	1	11
	B. Occasionally resents group control	7	13	26
	C. Responds well to group control	93	86	63
3. Need For Attention	A. Requires inordinate amount of attention	3	5	28
	B. Satisfied with reasonable amount of attention	97	95	72
4. Stability	A. Usually well-controlled	97	94	72
	B. Occasional temper outbursts	3	6	19
	C. Frequent temper outbursts	0	0	9
5. Aggressiveness	A. Does not assert himself	23	8	15
	B. Moderately aggressive	74	91	68
	C. Over-aggressive; fights frequently	3	1	17

group showed the greatest incidence of children rated as having difficulty in getting along well with others. In regard to "Aggressiveness," however, no particular relationships between social acceptance and ratings on behavior characteristics were observed, though the greatest number of children rated as over-aggressive and frequently fighting were members of the low social acceptance group.

Conclusions

Data obtained lent significant support to the contention that children socially unacceptable to their classmates tend to manifest poor behavior in the classroom characterized by disruptive, attention-seeking actions.

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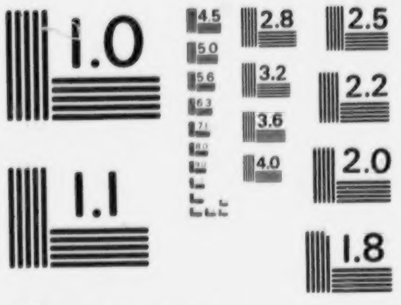
1.0
4.5
5.0
5.6
6.3
2.8
3.2
3.6
4.0
2.5
2.2
2.0
1.1
1.8
1.25
1.4
1.6

MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

Perhaps disruptive, attention-seeking behavior can tend to contribute to a child's loss of social acceptance. However, from the standpoint of child psychology and mental hygiene, it is more likely that the observed relationship tends to be, primarily, one in which the absence of social acceptance is influential in the determination of behavior rather than one in which the converse prevails. It is most probable that disruputive, attention-seeking actions often tend to be partially the result of inadequate social acceptance. Such an interpretation of the data finds much support by other writers on the topic.[12,13,14] It is contended that the socially ineffective child continues any overt activities that receive the social attention he is seeking. Behavior of a disruptive, attention-seeking nature serves, at least superficially and temporarily, to appease his ego needs, or simply functions as a means for his expression and communication of the dissatisfactions and frustrations he suffers as a result of his social failures with his peers.

Socially unsuccessful children, reacting to their social distress through the manifestation of unapproved an inappropriate public behavior, should be guided toward more effective and acceptable means of resolving and responding to their social problems and toward more constructive ways of reacting to frustration. Disruptive, attention-seeking actions produce, at best, merely insignificant and fleeting moments of social recognition, and, in long range perspective, impair the positive development of rewarding interpersonal relations and satisfactory social living.

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ATTITUDES OF CHILDREN FROM DEPRIVED ENVIRONMENT TOWARD ACHIEVEMENT-RELATED CONCEPTS

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HELEN M. DAVIDSON

The academic achievement of children from deprived environments has aroused increasing concern and interest in recent years. Lower-class children as a group fall below national norms in achievement and it is widely believed that they have negative attitudes toward academic learning. However, there has been relatively little attention given to the variability within the lower-class group itself. In academic achievement there is a wide range, with some children achieving success despite economic and cultural handicaps. Is there a corresponding range in the feelings and meanings attached to concepts that are related to school achievement?

The purposes of this study were, first, to investigate the attitudes of a group of Negro children from a severely deprived environment toward a number of concepts presumed to be important for school learning, and second, to determine whether there were variations in attitudes associated with differences in school achievement and with sex.[1]

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Procedure

Subjects

The subjects were 115 fourth-grade Negro children from one public school in a severely depressed urban area. Subjects were classified into three groups on the basis of grade equivalent scores on the Metropolitan Primary Reading Test administered at the end of third grade: "Good Achievers"–3.9 to 5.2; "Average Achievers"–1.0 to 3.8; "Poor Achievers" –1.7 to 2.9. TABLE 1 presents the mean reading scores for boys and for girls at each achievement level.

Instrument

A semantic differential instrument was developed using Osgood's technique (3). It consisted of 13 concepts to be rated on eight three-point adjective scales. The concepts included people who may be important in achievement behavior as well as specific aspects of school. Several non-school items were included for comparison and to mask the purpose of the instrument. The concepts, in order of presentation, were Best Friend, Myself, Smart Child, Mother, Father, Teacher, School, TV, Reading, Homework, Playing, Arithmetic, Dumb Child.

The adjective scales were chosen chiefly from those that had been found in the past to have high loadings on the evaluative factor, the primary component in meanings and attitudes (3). Six evaluative adjective pairs were used: Good-Bad, Clean-Dirty, Rich-Poor, Happy-Sad, Nice-Mean, Smart-Stupid. In addition, there were two potency scales: Big-Little and Strong-Weak. The vocabulary was modified to adapt it to the level and familiar usage of the children. The use of three-point scales constituted another adaptation. Osgood suggested that the seven-

TABLE 1

Mean Reading Achievement Scores for the Achievement Groups, by Sex

	Good Achievers	Average Achievers	Poor Achievers
Boys	N = 12 4.3 (0.32)*	N = 26 3.4 (0.27)	N = 18 2.2 (0.33)
Girls	N = 16 4.4 (0.40)	N = 27 3.5 (0.25)	N = 16 2.5 (0.27)

*Standard Deviations are shown in parentheses.

point scale used with adults be reduced to a five-point scale for children. However, it was felt that for this group of children additional simplification was required.[2] The instrument was pre-tested with individuals and with a school class.

The semantic differential was chosen over other types of attitude assessment for several reasons: it has a well-formulated theoretical rationale; considerable work has been done with it which indicates that is can be used for attitude measurement, for investigating meanings within a culture and for making comparisons among groups; it does not require extensive reading by the subjects, and it can be administered to groups and scored objectively; finally, its semi-projective nature should enable it to probe more deeply than a direct question technique.

The semantic differential has been used successfully with college students to investigate areas related to this study. For example, Husek and Wittrock (1) studied attitudes toward "School Teachers" using 117 scales; another study by Winter (5) included a comparison of teachers' and students' attitudes towards a number of concepts related to school learning.

The instrument was administered by a psychologist in five fourth-grade classrooms. The children received booklets containing thirteen identical pages. Each page had a blank line at the top on which the child was to write the concept to be rated; the eight adjective scales were listed on each page in the same fixed random order, with some positive adjectives appearing on the left and some on the right side of the scale. Directions were given orally so as not to penalize the poor readers. The examiner printed each concept on the blackboard and repeated the instructions to pace the group as they checked the eight scales for each concept.

Scoring and Analysis of Data

For each scale a positive adjective checked was scored "plus 1," a negative adjective, "minus 1" and the neutral position, "zero." Evaluative and potency scales were summed separately and scores handled independently throughout. The possible range of evaluative scores was from −1 to +6. Since there were only two potency scales each child's potency score was multiplied by three to give a range comparable to the evaluative ratings. Thus, each child had an evaluative and a potency score for each of the thirteen concepts with a possible range of from −6 to +6 for each score, the more positive scores indicating more positive attitudes.

Mean ratings were calculated for the total group of subjects and for boys and girls separately within each of the three achievement levels.

An analysis of variance was performed using sex and achievement as the classifying variables.[3]

Findings

The Total Group

An overview of the findings for the entire group of subjects may be obtained by examining the total group means for each concept shown, in their respective rank orders, in the first column of TABLE 2 for the evaluative scales and in the first column of TABLE 3 for the potency scales. The three authority figures (Mother, Father, Teacher) — along with "TV" — received high positive ratings on both evaluative and potency scales. All other concepts, except "Dumb Child," also received positive ratings. On the other hand, negative ratings were assigned to "Dumb Child," the one specifically unfavorable concept, which ranked lowest on both factors. The very high potency rating for "Father," close to the maximum possible value, is of particular interest in view of the fact that many of these children come from homes where the father is absent and where there is a strong matriarchal tradition. The relatively low position of "Myself" on the evaluative scales is also worth noting. In general, these children, despite their deprived status, displayed sensitivity to prevailing cultural values and expressed attitudes that seem in keeping with their age level. However, it should be borne in mind that there are no norms available and that any interpretations of findings are advanced more as hypotheses than as conclusions.

The overall evaluative ratings of the concepts were, for the most part, higher than the potency ratings, suggesting that while the children considered most of the concepts "good" they did not see them as equally "strong." In the case of "Reading" the discrepancy was especially marked. Although "Reading" ranked fifth on the evaluative factor, it was next to the lowest on potency. Are these children saying, "We know that reading is something to be admired and valued, but we don't see it as an influential force in our lives"?

In contrast to most other concepts, the mean potency rating for "School" exceeded the mean evaluative rating, and, in addition, the mean evaluative rating for "School" was relatively low in comparison to the evaluative ratings for specific school subjects. These discrepancies may have arisen from a misinterpretation by the children of the word "School" as referring to the school building itself, an old and unattentive slum structure.

TABLE 2

Mean Ratios and F-Ratios for Each Concept on Evaluative Scales by Achievement Level and Sex

	Mean Ratings‡							F-Ratios		
		Good Achievers		Average Achievers		Poor Achievers		Source of Variation		
Concept	Total Group (115)	Boys (12)	Girls (16)	Boys (26)	Girls (27)	Boys (18)	Girls (16)	Achievement	Sex	Interaction
Mother	5.1	5.0	3.9	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.4	7.09**	2.62	2.56
T.V.	4.9	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.7	5.2	5.2	0.69	0.01	0.03
Father	4.8	4.8	4.0	4.6	5.0	5.1	5.4	2.32	0.03	1.15
Teacher	4.6	3.9	4.4	4.0	5.0	5.3	4.7	1.48	0.39	1.32
Reading	4.4	5.2	3.5	4.3	4.5	5.1	4.4	0.53	4.48*	2.80
Smart Child	4.3	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.7	3.8	0.10	1.64	0.76
Playing	4.2	3.9	3.9	4.2	4.6	4.2	4.3	0.44	0.11	0.04
Arithmetic	3.9	4.7	3.3	3.8	3.6	4.2	4.4	0.64	1.00	1.11
Best Friend	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.6	4.5	4.2	1.82	0.13	0.08
Myself	3.6	3.9	2.6	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.2	1.11	0.40	2.19
Homework	3.5	3.8	3.4	2.5	3.6	4.5	3.6	1.20	0.03	1.25
School	1.4	–0.2	0.0	1.5	1.3	4.0	1.2	6.07**	1.81	2.10
Dumb Child	–1.9	–2.8	–2.9	–2.0	–1.9	0.5	–2.8	1.92	2.39	2.46

‡Possible range of ratings: –6.0 to +6.0 with +6.0 indicating the most favor-able rating.
*p = <.05.
**p = <.01.

TABLE 3

Mean Ratios and F-Ratios for Each Concept on Potency Scales by Achievement Level and Sex

Concept	Mean Ratings‡							F-Ratios		
		Good Achievers		Average Achievers		Poor Achievers		Source of Variation		
	Total Group (115)	Boys (12)	Girls (16)	Boys (26)	Girls (27)	Boys (18)	Girls (16)	Achievement	Sex	Interaction
Father	5.5	6.0	5.2	5.2	5.8	5.5	5.6	0.08	0.00	1.84
Mother	4.6	4.2	3.4	4.3	5.2	4.8	5.6	3.82*	0.46	1.86
Teacher	4.1	3.5	3.9	3.5	4.2	4.8	4.9	1.46	0.47	0.11
T.V.	3.5	4.0	3.9	3.5	4.9	3.0	1.3	4.83**	0.05	2.38
Playing	3.4	2.8	3.0	4.0	3.1	3.3	3.6	0.62	0.08	0.50
Myself	3.2	2.8	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	2.1	0.23	0.26	0.84
School	3.1	2.0	3.6	2.5	3.3	4.0	2.9	0.40	0.42	1.39
Arithmetic	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.6	3.7	2.4	0.40	0.58	0.35
Best Friend	2.6	2.2	1.7	2.5	3.0	2.7	3.0	0.73	0.01	0.23
Smart Child	2.5	3.0	2.6	2.8	1.9	3.2	1.9	0.17	1.50	0.15
Homework	2.3	1.0	1.9	2.8	2.0	2.8	3.0	1.55	0.00	0.47
Reading	0.9	1.0	–0.2	0.0	1.2	3.7	0.0	1.59	2.99	6.87**
Dumb Child	–1.9	–3.2	–3.0	–1.7	–2.6	1.0	–2.2	3.95*	3.03	2.01

‡Possible range of ratings: –6.0 to +6.0 with +6.0 indicating the most favor-able rating.
*p = <.05.
**p = <.01.

Achievement and Sex Variation

When the findings were analyzed by sex and three achievement levels, a number of significant differences were found. The mean ratings of each concept for the six sub-groups, along with F-ratios, are presented in TABLE 2 for the evaluative scales and in TABLE 3 for the potency scales.

The significant differences resulted chiefly from achievement variation, specifically, in the ratings of "Mother" and "School" on the evaluative scales and "Mother," "TV" and "Dumb Child" on the potency scales. There was one significant sex difference in the evaluative ratings of "Reading" and one significant interaction effect in the potency ratings of "Reading."

In the ratings of the concept "Mother," it was the poor achievers who assigned the most favorable ratings on both the evaluative and potency scales. Of particular interest were the low ratings of "Mother" given by the good-achieving girls in comparison to other groups. (It is interesting to note that these girls were lowest in their self-evaluative ratings too.) The concept "School" was also evaluated most favorably by the poor achievers, particularly the boys.

For the concept "Dumb Child" the good achievers were the most strongly negative and assigned the lowest potency ratings. The same pattern of responses was observed for the evaluative ratings of "Dumb Child" although the differences did not reach the level of significance there. On both factors, the poor-achieving boys gave "Dumb Child" slightly positive ratings. Thus, the poor achievers, who may find the concept more threatening personally, did not reject "Dumb Child" as strongly as the better achievers.

In the case of "TV", the average achievers assigned the most favorable potency ratings, followed by the good achievers. The poor achievers gave "TV" much lower potency ratings than the other groups. This finding does not seem to contribute to conceptualization of the data. (One possible interpretation is that the importance of "TV" has been denigrated by teachers and that the poor achievers gave what they perceived as the socially most desirable response.)

The ratings of "Reading" provided two significant differences. The sexes differed on the evaluative scales, with the boys assigning the higher ratings. In the potency ratings of "Reading", there was a significant interaction of sex and achievement arising from the highly favorable ratings of the poor-achieving boys. "Reading" ranked fifth among the 13 concepts in the mean potency ratings of the poor-achieving boys; for the five other sub-groups, "Reading" ranked next to the lowest.

In general, it appears that the poor-achievers tended to assign the most favorable ratings, particularly to concepts which have high social value.[4] It may be that they were less able than the better achievers to express critical attitudes. The poor-achieving boys showed the most global favorability of response.

Discussion and Conclusion

Although it is often assumed that lower-class children have negative attitudes toward school-related and authority concepts, the young Negro children studied here expressed favorable attitudes. We realize that this result may in part be due to the general tendency to give favorable and socially acceptable responses on rating instruments. However, for this group of children the indication that they are aware of what is socially acceptable and what should be valued is in itself important to note.

The fact that there was a discrepancy between the evaluative and potency ratings may be related to the observation by Rosen (4) that Negro subjects may score high in value orientation, i.e., expressing adherence to the prevailing values of society, while scoring low in personal achievement motivation. The relatively low ratings of "Myself" provide additional evidence for this interpretation.

It is generally taken for granted that good achievers have more favorable attitudes toward school than poor achievers and that girls are more favorable than boys. This study did not find these relationships, and other studies too have reported conflicting evidence suggesting that findings may be influenced by such factors as the criterion of achievement used. For example, Malpass (2) using eighth-grade children, found that a number of attitude measures were positively correlated with achievement as measured by teachers' grades but not with achievement as measured by standardized tests. The study cited previously (5) which used a semantic differential with college students, found a correlation between grades achieved and the degree of similarity in values between teacher and student. It is quite possible that in the present study, if teachers' grades instead of achievement test scores had been the criterion used to form the achievement sub-groups, a different pattern of relationships might have emerged.[5] Inconsistent findings in studies of the relationship between attitudes and achievement may also stem from the nature of the setting and composition of the group studied. The findings reported here may be specific to a homogeneous, lower-class group and similar children in a heterogeneous socioeconomic setting might have expressed different attitudes.

A number of theoretical questions may be raised regarding the inverse relationship observed in this study between achievement and favorability of expressed attitudes toward certain school and authority concepts. It is quite possible that the higher ratings of the poor achievers may be symptomatic of rigid defenses that mask underlying anxiety or hostility. The good achievers seemed to demonstrate greater critical ability, independence, self-confidence and reality orientation which may be related to their success in school. Similar interpretations may be adduced regarding the instances in which the boys' ratings were more favorable than those of the girls. The particularly high ratings assigned by the poor-achieving boys tend to reinforce these interpretations. Lower-class Negro boys are apt to face special difficulties in identification and other important aspects of development and maturation. The poor-achieving boys, with their psychological and educational burdens, may well be the subgroup with the strongest defensive needs.

One may also speculate on the extent to which the findings depend upon the projective level of this instrument. Would a direct set of questions elicit more similar responses from good and poor achievers in that both would give the expected favorable surface replies? Would a deeper projective instrument perhaps reverse the direction of the findings if, in penetrating the defenses of the poor achievers, it revealed that their basic attitudes were more negative? In fact, it was observed that in "self" drawings obtained from this same group of subjects, the poor-achieving boys displayed more negative characteristics than the other sub-groups. (See the article following in this issue). Also, in a TAT-type task used with a small selected sample, the stories of the poor achievers included more often than those of the good achievers, instances of punishment, hostile emotions, unhappy endings and authority figures cast in negative roles.[6]

The development of further insights into the psychological variables that are associated with achievement should be helpful in current efforts to improve academic attainment among children from deprived environments.

Summary

This study sought to investigate the attitudes of children from a severely deprived environment toward a number of concepts presumed to be important for school learning and to determine whether there were variations in attitudes associated with differences in school achievement and with sex.

Subjects were 115 fourth-grade Negro children from one public school in a severely depressed urban area. Subjects were classified as "Good", "Average" or "Poor" achievers on the basis of scores on the Metropolitan Primary Reading Test administered at the end of the third grade.

A semantic differential instrument was developed using Osgood's technique. It consisted of 13 concepts to be rated on eight three-point adjective scales, six evaluative and two potency. The concepts, in order of presentation, were: Best Friend, Myself, Smart Child, Mother, Father, Teacher, School, TV, Reading, Homework, Playing, Arithmetic, Dumb Child.

Each child received an evaluative and a potency score for each of the 13 concepts with a possible range of from --6 to +6 for each score, the more positive scores indicating more positive attitudes. An analysis of variance was performed using sex and achievement as the classifying variables.

The findings revealed that this group of Negro children from a deprived environment expressed generally favorable attitudes, particularly toward important authority figures. Their ratings on evaluative scales of the semantic differential were somewhat higher than their potency scale ratings. In most instances, the poor achievers assigned more positive ratings than the better achievers, producing significant achievement differences in the ratings of "Mother" and "School" on the evaluative scales and "Mother" on the potency scales. The only unfavorable concept, "Dumb Child" evoked chiefly negative responses; on the potency scales there was a significant achievement difference with the good achievers assigning the most strongly negative ratings. One significant sex difference emerged for "Reading" on the evaluative scales, where the boys' ratings were more favorable than those of the girls. There was also a significant interaction effect for the potency ratings of "Reading" where the poor-achieving boys assigned the most favorable ratings.

It was suggested that the relatively high favorable ratings of the poor achievers, particularly the boys, might stem from their greater defensive needs. The good achievers, on the other hand, seemed to demonstrate greater critical ability, self-confidence and reality orientation which may be related to their success in school.

FOOTNOTES

1. This report is part of an ongoing investigation of achievement functioning in lower-class children undertaken in cooperation with the Board of Education of New York City (Assistant Superintendent Charles M. Shapp). See also the article following in this issue.

2. The range of responses obtained, both in individual scores and in mean values, indicates that the simplified instrument did elicit differential responses and that it can be a useful device with young children.
3. We are indebted to Dr. Donald M. Medley (Division of Teacher Education of the N.Y.C. Board of Higher Education) for suggesting the method employed for handling unequal frequencies in cells as described in Walker, Helen M. and Lev, Joseph, *Statistical Inference, Holt,* 1953, p. 391.
4. The possibility that the higher ratings of the poor achievers represented an artifact of the instrument was investigated. It has been found (3) that less able subjects tend to be more polarized in their judgments and it is well known that individuals tend, in general, to rate more positively than negatively. Since the good achievers did use the neutral position more frequently than other subjects, it was decided to re-score papers for some of the concepts eliminating those scales which were assigned a neutral rating. The results obtained from this re-scoring procedure did not change the direction of the differences.
5. It has been observed that even as low as fifth grade, interpersonal perceptions of teachers and children are an important factor in achievement behavior. (See Helen H. Davidson and Gerhard Lang, "Children's Perceptions of Their Teachers' Feelings Toward Them Related to Self-Perception, School Achievement and Behavior," *Journal of Experimental Education,* 29: 107-118, 1960.
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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND ACHIEVEMENT VARIABLES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Arnold H. Matlin, Francis A. Mendelsohn

The importance of non-intellectual factors in academic achievement has long been discussed. One such factor often linked with scholastic achievement is personality adjustment. Researchers have pointed out a definite relationship between personality factors and scholastic achievement. For a partial review of this research, see Tyler (6:123-129).

Unfortunately, relatively few studies have been concerned with the effect of personality factors at the elementary school level. Several studies which deal with the problem have been carried out (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7). In general, with the exception of Wilson, the findings were that there exists a significant difference in the degree of academic achievement between groups of well adjusted and poorly adjusted elementary

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school children. More specifically, achieving students had a more adequate level of both personal and social adjustment than did underachieving students. It was the major purpose of the present study to further investigate the relationship between school achievement and the emotional and social adjustment of the elementary school child.

Inherent in the educational system is the fact that there exists a great deal of personal interaction between teacher and elementary school pupils. It seems reasonable to assume that the teacher when assigning grades will be influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by the student's personality adjustment as evidenced by his classroom behavior. Conversely, standard achievement tests are constructed, administered, and scored impersonally. Therefore we would expect these scores to be less affected by personality adjustment variables.

On the basis of these considerations and the results of cited studies, it was predicted that adjustment, as measured by the California Test of Personality (CTP) would be positively correlated with achievement. However, it was predicted that adjustment would correlate more highly with teachers' grades than with scores on standard achievement tests.

Procedure

Ss were 68 children from three fifth grade classes in a predominantly middle class school district. For each subject, information was obtained on five variables. Measures of intelligence were obtained from scores on the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Abilities Test. Achievement on standardized tests was obtained from the battery median of the Stanford Achievement Tests. Classroom achievement was obtained by averaging report card grades over three marking periods. The California Test of Personality, Elementary Level (Form AA), was administered, and scores on the personal and social adjustment sections were obtained.

Results

The intercorrelation matrix for all variables is presented in TABLE 1.

Inspection of the matrix reveals that achievement, as measured by teachers' ratings, has a .44 and a .42 correlation with personal and social adjustment respectively. Achievement as measured by standardized tests, however, has only a .30 and a .26 correlation with personal and social adjustment.

IQ correlates with both achievement and adjustment. Thus, in order to determine the relationship between adjustment and achievement when the IQ variable was controlled, first order partial correlations were computed and are presented in TABLE 2. These correlations enable us to assess the relationship between factors, with the variance due to IQ differences held constant. First order correlations with IQ partialled out yielded significant .32 and .30 correlations between teacher's rating of student achievement and personal and social adjustment respectively. However, between achievement as measured by standardizd tests, and

TABLE 1

Correlations Between All Variables (N–68)

	IQ	*Achievement (Teachers' Grades)*	*Achievement (Test)*	*Personal Adjustment*	*Social Adjustment*
IQ	—	.60***	.59***	.33***	.32***
Achievement (Teacher's Grades)		—	.73***	.44***	.42***
Achievement (Test)			—	.30**	.26*
Personal Adjustment				—	.68***
Social Adjustment					—

*Significant beyond .05 level of confidence.
**Significant beyond .02 level of confidence.
***Significant beyond 0.1 level of confidence.

TABLE 2

First Order Partial Correlations Between Achievement and Adjustment With IQ Held Constant

	Achtievement (Test)	*Achievement (Teachers' Grades)*
Personal Adjustment	.14	.32***
Social Adjustment	.09	.30**

**Significant beyond the .02 level of confidence.
***Significant beyond the .01 level of confidence.

personal and social adjustment, the partial correlations are only .09 and .14.

A high correlation, .68, may be noted between personal and social adjustment sections of the CTP. Also notable is the similarity of correlations between the two adjustment sections and all other variables.

Discussion

As was expected, high correlations were found between IQ scores and both measures of achievement. As predicted, however, adjustment factors also contribute their share to the variance. Once IQ is partialled out, adjustment factors are still significantly related to school grades, but show little relation to scores on standard achievement tests. This finding confirms the prediction that adjustment correlates with achievement, but more strongly so in the case of report card grades than standardized achievement tests. The data suggest that adjustment may not be affecting achievement, *per se*. Rather, adjustment may actually affect the teacher's perception of the child's achievement. In other words, well adjusted and poorly adjusted pupils may perform equally well, but teachers may give better grades to the better adjusted students. However, alternative hypotheses can be formulated. Students with poor adjustment may have work habits and lack of persistence which could affect their achievement as evidenced by report card grades, whereas such variables may not affect scores on standard achievement tests.

The high r (.68) between the personal and social adjustment sections of the CTP, and the fact that the correlations of these sections with other variables are almost identical, indicated that it is probably erroneous to assume that the two subtests are truly measuring different aspects of adjustment. Future researchers and users of the test would probably be better advised to combine the sections into one general adjustment scale.

Summary

Data concerning IQ, school achievement, standardized test achievement and personality adjustment were obtained for 68 fifth-grade pupils. As predicted, adjustment was strongly related to teachers' grades, but not to scores on the standardized test. It is concluded that personality variables may indirectly affect school grades at this level because teachers tend to base their grades on adjustment as well as accomplishment.

FOOTNOTE

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN "CAUSAL" ORIENTATION, ANXIETY, AND INSECURITY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

Rolf E. Muuss

This paper presents the findings of a study designed to investigate the relationship between "causality" and such indices of mental health as anxiety and insecurity in fifth- and sixth-grade children. The concept, causality, constitutes the theoretical framework of the preventive Psychiatry Program at the State University of Iowa. The Preventive Psychiatry Program is designed to investigate the extent to which causal orientation contributes to mental health, and whether and to what extent an experimental learning program emphasizing the causal nature of human behavior produces causally oriented subjects.

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Causality is defined as an understanding and appreciation of the dynamic, complex, and interacting nature of the forces that operate in human behavior. It involves an attitude of flexibility, of seeing things from the view point of others as well as an awareness of the probabilistic nature of knowledge. A causally oriented person is capable of suspending judgment until sufficient factual information is available; furthermore, he realizes that his behavior has consequences and that there are alternative ways of solving social problems (Muuss, 1960). It is assumed that a person who is aware of the dynamic and causal nature of human behavior is better able to solve his own problems and to meet social situations. This study purports to investigate a limited aspect of this assumption.

Explicitly stated, our hypotheses are that Ss who are high causally oriented (as measured by paper-and-pencil tests) will differ from Ss who show a low degree of causal orientaiton on the following criterion variables:

Hypothesis 1. They will demonstrate less insecurity as measured by the Kooker Security-Insecurity Scale (Kooker, 1954).

Hypothesis 2. They will show less anxiety as measured by the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (CMAS) (Castaneda, McCandless, & Palermo, 1956).

Hypothesis 3. They will make fewer L responses as measured by the L scale which is part of the CMAS.

The rationale for these hypothesis is based on the assumption that a lack of insight into the dynamics of one's own behavior and an unwillingness and/or an inability to understand the problems and the behavior of others tends to increase the level of anxiety and the degree of insecurity. If other people's behavior is not understood it will tend to be threatening as are physical events which an individual experiences and does not understand. A lack of insight into the dynamics of behavior will tend to make it difficult to react logically to the behavior of others. Furthermore, if behavior is not understood it may be misinterpreted and the individual may react in such a way as to produce a threat to the other person's security and self-respect. This then might tend to generate conflict which would add further to the difficulty of the situation. If at times a person does not understand his own behavior and the factors that influence him he naturally feels threatened, insecure and anxious. Once a person does understand himself and others he is more willing to agree with such statements as: he sometimes gets angry, he does not always tell the truth, he does not like everyone, and similar items that make up the L scale.

Hypothesis 4. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that these differences – if they have any generality at all – will be equally obvious for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss.

Hypothesis 5. The two measures used, insecurity scores and anxiety scores, will show a positive relationship to one another.

Hypothesis 6. Since about half of the Ss have been exposed to an experimental learning program and half have served as controls in another research study, it is hypothesized that a significantly larger portion of the high causally oriented Ss came from the experimental classes and that a larger portion of the low causally oriented Ss came from control classes.

Procedure

In order to investigate the above stated hypotheses, two sets of tests were administered to 280 sixth- and 179 fifth-grade Ss in the schools of a midwestern community of 80,000. 224 of these Ss had been exposed to an experimental learning program designed to develop a causal orientation, while 235 Ss came from regular classrooms and served as controls in another research study. The fact that the Ss came from both experimental and control classes was only utilized in testing the sixth of the previously stated hypotheses. However, there is some justification in utilizing Ss from two different groups since there is evidence (Stiles, 1950) that children from regular classrooms do not have much of an understanding and appreciation of the causal nature of human behavior. Therefore, in order to obtain a wide range of causal orientation, the experimental and the control Ss were combined so that differences between high and low causally oriented Ss could be studied more effectively.

The following two tests served as selection criteria to determine high causally oriented and low causally oriented Ss:

1. The Social Causal Test[2]
2. The Physical Causal Test[3]

Of these two tests only the Physical Causal Test had a significant correlation ($r = .58$, N 251) with IQ. This might explain that the high

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[1] This study was completed while the author was with the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa. Appreciation is expressed to the Grant Foundation for their support of this recent project.

[2] The Social Causal Test is described elsewhere in the literature (Lyle & Levitt, 1955) (Ojemann, Levitt, & Whiteside, 1955).

[3] The Physical Causal Test was developed in part by the author. Part of the test was modified by the author for use wtih fifth- and sixth-grade Ss from Clark (1953).

causal group differed significantly from the low causal group in terms of IQ scores. However, this is not a serious shortcoming since it will be shown that the criterion variables, insecurity, anxiety, and L scores, have a relatively low relationship to IQ. The high causally oriented Ss, for the purpose of this study, are defined as all those Ss who fell above the corresponding grade mean on *both* the above described selection criteria, low causally oriented Ss as those Ss who fell below the corresponding group mean on *both* selection criteria.

The second set of tests, constituting the criterion variables, consisted of:

1. The Kooker Security-Insecurity Scale. Kooker ratings are obtained by a trained observer who follows the Ss during the whole school day for a period of five days, and who rates the child on a series of 19 behavior items indicative of security or insecurity as to frequency of occurrence. When several observers independently rated the same Ss, between rater correlations ranged from .63 to .86 (Kooker, 1954).
2. The Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (CMAS) (Castaneda, McCandless, & Palermo, 1956).
3. The 11 item L scale which is administered interspersed with the CMAS.

The Design of the Study

From the 280 sixth-grade Ss 90 met the selection criteria and were classified in the high causal group; 72 fell below both group means on the selection criteria and were classified as the low causal group. Similarly, from the 179 fifth-grade Ss, 59 met the criteria for the high causal group, and 45 fell in the category low causal group. In order to test for the effect of grade level (G) (fifth or sixth grades) and the degree of causality (C) (High and Low as defined above) an analysis of variance was computed for each of the three criterion variables, insecurity, anxiety, and L scores. A factorial analysis of variance design was utilized for all three sets of scores. Since this design requires either an equal number of cases in each cell or proportionality of cases from column to column or from row to row (Lindquist, 1953), the data had to be adjusted. Proportionality could be obtained with the least loss of cases by utilizing the corrected distribution shown in TABLE 1. Proportionality of cases — as illustrated in TABLE 1 under Corrected *N* — was obtained by either randomly omitting cases from the original *N*, or by adding cases made up of the corresponding cell group mean of the original *N*. The original *N*'s for the security and the anxiety scores are also presented in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1

Distribution of Original and Corrected Number of Cases in the Factorial Analysis of Variance

Grade Level	Original N for the Security Scores		Original N for the Anxiety and L Scores		Corrected[a] N in Order to Obtain Proportionality	
	Degree of Causality		Degree of Causality		Degree of Causality	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
5th Grade	59	41	58	45	60	45
6th Grade	89	72	89	71	88	66

[a] This corrected distribution was used for all three sets of scores; anxiety, security, and L scores (see text).

Results

The analysis of variance data are reported in TABLE 2. Inspection of TABLE 2 reveals that there is a highly significant ($p < .001$) difference in the predicted direction between the high causally oriented and the low causally oriented Ss on the security variable. TABLE 3 contains the means and standard deviations. The summary table (TABLE 2) also shows a significant difference ($p < .025$) between fifth- and sixth-grade Ss. It is interesting to observe, however, that the fifth-grade Ss appear to be more secure ($M = 9.16$) than the sixth-grade Ss ($M = 10.90$). One might speculate as to whether or not the onset of pubescence in sixth-grade Ss contributes to this unexpected finding or whether the anticipated change to Junior High School is a factor contributing to insecurity. The grade by causality interaction effect is nonsignificant. Independent t tests for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss (TABLE 3) result in significant differences for both groups. The data in TABLE 3 further show that homogeneity of variance may be assumed. Thus, we feel justified in concluding that high causally oriented Ss are more secure than low causally oriented Ss as measured by the Kooker Security-Insecurity Scale.

The analysis of variance summary relating to the second hypothesis – that high causally oriented Ss have less anxiety than low causally oriented Ss – is also reported in TABLE 2. There is a significant ($p <$ .001) difference between the high causally and the low causally oriented

TABLE 2

Summary of Analysis of Variance of Insecurity, Anxiety and L Scores (N 259)

Types of Scores and Source of Variance	*df*	Mean Squares	*F*	*p*
Insecurity Scores				
Grade (G)	1	187.76	5.25	$<.025$
Causality (C)	1	753.19	21.04	$<.001$
G × C Interaction	1	50.89	1.42	*NS*
Within cells (w)	250*	35.79		
Anxiety Scores				
Grades (G)	1	233.05	5.62	$<.025$
Causality (C)	1	862.22	20.80	$<.001$
G × C Interaction	1	.93	.02	*NS*
Within cells (w)	253**	41.45		
L Scores				
Grades (G)	1	.02	.004	*NS*
Causality (C)	1	132.20	26.73	$<.001$
G × C	1	6.57	1.33	*NS*
Within cells (w)	253**	4.95		

*Five degrees of freedom deducted from *df* for error since five mean values were added in order to obtain proportionality.

**Two degrees of freedom deducted from *df* for error since two mean values were added in order to obtain proportionality.

groups on the anxiety variable. As TABLE 3 indicates the difference is in the predicted direction, high causally oriented Ss manifest less anxiety as measured by the CMAS than low causally oriented Ss. Again there is a significant difference ($p < .025$) between fifth- and sixth-grade Ss. However, trend on the anxiety scale is in the opposite direction from that on the insecurity measure. Sixth graders are more insecure than fifth graders, while sixth graders are less anxious than fifth graders. This finding throws some doubt on the fifth hypothesis which stated that anxiety and insecurity are positively related variables. The grade by causality interaction effect of CMAS scores is nonsignificant. Independent *t* tests for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss demonstrate significant differences ($p < .005$) for both classes. Tests for homogeneity of variance show that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is justified. In conclusion, the evidence supports the hypothesis that high causally oriented Ss are less anxious as measured by the CMAS than low causally oriented Ss.

The third hypothesis predicted that there would be a relationship between causality and L responses on the L scale. The summary TABLE

TABLE 3

Comparison of the Mean Scores of the High and Low Causally Oriented Groups on the Kooker Security-Insecurity Rating Scale, the Manifest Anxiety Scale and the L Scale

	High Causal Group			Low Causal Group			
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Security Scores[a]							
5th-grade Ss	60	8.15	5.26	45	10.51	5.86	2.11*
6th-grade Ss	88	9.10	5.22	66	13.29	7.27	3.94**
Total	148	8.72	5.22	111	12.16	6.81	4.42**
Anxiety Scores[b]							
5th-grade Ss	60	11.63	5.65	45	15.47	6.23	3.21**
6th-grade Ss	88	9.81	5.94	66	13.39	7.67	3.13**
Total	148	10.55	5.86	111	14.23	7.13	4.42**
L Scores[c]							
5th-grade Ss	60	2.10	1.96	45	3.93	2.44	4.09**
6th-grade Ss	88	2.40	2.25	66	3.58	2.22	3.22**
Total	148	2.28	.213	111	3.72	2.30	5.14**

[a] Low Kooker scores imply greater security.
[b] High scores reflect high anxiety.
[c] High scores indicate many L responses.
*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .005 level.

2 demonstrates that there is a significant difference ($p < .001$) between the high causal and the low causal groups on the L variable. The score on the L scale is obtained by counting the L responses. Thus, a low L score might be interpreted as honesty, a high L score as faking, dishonesty, or as lacking self-insight. Inspection of the mean (TABLE 3) demonstrates that the differences are in the predicted direction. The mean L score for the high causal group is 2.28, for the low causal group it is 3.72. There is no significant difference between fifth and sixth grades and there is no significant interaction effect between grade level and causality. Independent *t* tests for fifth and sixth grades demonstrate significant differences between the high and the low causal group. Homogeneity of variance may be assumed since the variance ratio is nonsignificant. Thus, there is support for the hypothesis that high causally oriented Ss give fewer L responses, as measured by the 11 item L scale, than low causally oriented Ss.

The *F* ratios which show the interaction effect of grades by causality in TABLE 2 are nonsignificant and thus support the fourth hypothesis. This is equally true for all three variables: security, anxiety, and L score. This finding and the *t* values reported in TABLE 3 provide justification for accepting the hypothesis that in this study high causally and low causally oriented Ss respond differently to such indices of mental health as insecurity, anxiety, and L responses, irrespective of whether the Ss come from the fifth or the sixth grade.

TABLE 4 reports the intercorrelations of the three criterion variables, as well as the correlation between IQ and each of the variables separately for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss.

There is only a small positive correlation of .13 between anxiety scores and insecurity scores for sixth-grade *Ss*, which barely reaches the .05 level of significance. The magnitude of the correlation does not change when analyzed separately for boys ($r = .13$, *N* 120) and girls ($r = .16$, *N* 112), but with smaller *N*'s the correlations are no longer significant. The correlation between anxiety scores and security scores for fifth-grade Ss is, for all intent and purpose, zero. Thus, we do not have conclusive evidence that our measures of anxiety and security are positively related. The data might indicate that both tests measure different and unrelated aspects or traits. However, we might also consider an alternative explanation arising from the different nature of the two

TABLE 4

Intercorrelations of the Criterion Variables and IQ for Fifth-Grade (N 137) and Sixth-Grade Subjects (N 232)

	Security	Anxiety	L Scores
IQ			
5th grade	–.30**	.09	–.40**
6th grade	–.28**	–.20**	–.13*
Security			
5th grade	–	.002	.10
6th grade	–	.13*	.07
Anxiety			
5th grade	–	–	.11
6th grade	–	–	.13*

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.

test instruments, namely, that the anxiety scale is a paper-and-pencil test, consequently acquiescence, faking, rationalizing, and a deliberate attempt to give the socially desirable response might operate in a systematic fashion, while the Kooker scale uses the rating of behavior by trained observers. Possible shortcomings of this scale such as rater bias and halo effect would be operative in a different fashion. Bruce (1958) using the same tests with sixth-grade Ss obtained a correlation of .26 (*N* 184) significant at the .01 level, thus giving some indirect support for our hypothesis. Furthermore, his finding is basically in agreement with our data obtained for sixth-grade Ss. All that can be said at this point is that there are sufficient indications to warrant further investigation of the relationship between anxiety and insecurity as stated in our fifth hypothesis.

The correlation between insecurity scores and L scores is nonsignificant for both grade levels. The correlation between anxiety scores and L scores is nonsignificant for fith graders and barely reaches the .05 level of significance for sixth graders. If the sixth-grade data are broken down into sexes the correlations are for boys –.11 (*N* 120) and for girls –.21 (*N* 112), both nonsignificant. Thus, the correlations of the anxiety scores with the L scores are not in disagreement with those reported by Castaneda et al. (1956) who found for sixth-grade boys $r = -.10$ (*N* 65) and for girls $r = .22$ (*N* 49), both nonsignificant, even though he reports a positive correlation for girls, while ours is negative.

As was indicated previously, the relationship between IQ and the criterion variables is relatively low and not always consistent for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss. The correlation of the Kooker Security-Insecurity Rating Scale and IQ is –.28 for sixth- and –.30 for fifth-grade Ss, both significant at the .01 level. Thus, there is a tendency for the more intelligent child to be rated as more secure. However, a correlation of .30 accounts for only 9% of the variance.

The correlation between anxiety scores and IQ is –.20 (significant) for sixth graders and +.09 (nonsignificant) for fifth graders, thus not only small in actual size but operating in different directions for the different grade levels. McCandless and Castaneda (1956) report correlations between IQ and anxiety scores for sixth-grade boys –.16 (*N* 55), nonsignificant, and for sixth-grade girls –.43 (*N* 45), significant.

The L scores show a moderately high significant correlation ($r = -.40$, *N* 137) with IQ for fifth-grade Ss, but only a barely significant correlation ($r = -.13$, *N* 232) for sixth-grade Ss. Again we feel justified in concluding that only a small amount of the variance is attributable to differences in IQ's. For a correlation of .40 only 16% of the variance can be accounted for in terms of IQ. However, there is a small tendency for the less intelligent children to give more L responses than the more intelligent Ss.

In order to further eliminate the influence of IQ on the data, Ss from the high causal group were matched with Ss from the low causal group on the IQ variable. Sixth-grade Ss were paired with sixth graders and fifth graders with fifth-grade Ss. The IQ score difference between each pair was never greater than plus minus one IQ point. The data in TABLE 5 are based on 31 matched pairs of sixth graders and 19 matched pairs of fifth graders. The *t* test between the high causal and low causal Ss matched on IQ is computed by way of the standard error of a difference between correlated means. The data indicate that IQ has no effect on the security data. The difference between the means is significant at the .005 level. The group means for the high and low causal Ss are almost identical for the total 259 Ss (TABLE 3) with the group means for the 100 Ss who are used in the pairing (TABLE 5). Intelligence scores do not influence the results obtained in this study with the Kooker Security-Insecurity Scale.

For the anxiety data – even though the correlations between IQ and anxiety scores are lower and less consistent in magnitude and in direction for fifth- and sixth-grade Ss than for the security scores (TABLE 4) – the *t* ratio between matched groups is not significant, but approaches the .05 level of significance. However, the correlation between IQ and anxiety scores for the 99 paired Ss only is –.13, not significant. Thus, even though IQ scores appear to have some influence on the obtained differences on the anxiety data, this influence appears to be negligible.

The difference between the high causal and low causal Ss matched on IQ for the L scores is significant at the .02 level. The L score means for the matched groups (TABLE 5) are about the same as the means for the total groups (TABLE 3).

We thus can conclude that the results obtained in this study cannot be explained on the basis of differences in intelligence which existed between the original high causal and low causal groups.

So far the discussion has dealt only with the relationship between the degree of causality and indices of mental health, such as insecurity, and L responses. No attention has been directed to the effects of a causal learning program in producing causally oriented Ss. In line with the sixth hypothesis one might ask: To what extent did the experimental classes contribute subjects to the high and the low causally oriented groups? As noted in TABLE 6 chi square analysis indicates for both fifth and sixth grades a preponderance of cases from the experimental

TABLE 5

Comparison of the Mean Scores on the Kooker Security-Insecurity Scale, The Manifest Anxiety Scale and the L Scale for Causally and Low Causally Oriented Subjects with Matched IQ's (N 100)

	High Causal Subjects			Low Causal Subjects			
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*[a]	*M*	*SD*	*t*[b]
Security Scores	50	8.60	5.51	49	12.35	7.85	3.05***
Anxiety Scores	50	11.62	6.19	49	14.06	8.04	1.79*
L Scores	50	2.48	2.17	49	3.59	2.38	2.55**

[a] The security score for one child, the anxiety and L scores for another child were not available.

[b] Since individuals are matched on the basis of IQ the standard error of a difference was computed for correlated means.

*Significant at the .10 level.

**Significant at the .02 level.

***Significant at the .005 level.

(causal) classes in the High Causal Cell and a preponderance of cases from the control (regular) classes in the Low Regular Cell, far beyond the number of expected frequencies.

Bruce (1958) demonstrated that sixth-grade children who had participated for two consecutive years in an experimental learning program designed to develop a causal understanding were more secure and less anxious than control Ss who had not participated in such a program. He used the same tests which were used in this study but did not report the L scores. It is interesting to observe that he obtained significant differences only between the two-year group and the control group, but not between the one-year group and the control group. In this study a comparison was made between high causally and low causally oriented Ss — a method more sensitive to differences than the comparison of experimental and control groups, but yielding basically the same results.

Summary

Two tests, the Social Causal Test and the Physical Causal Test, served as selection criteria for high causally ($N = 148$) and low causally ($N = 111$) oriented Ss. A comparison was made between the high causal and the low causal fifth- and sixth-grade groups in respect to measures of security, anxiety, and L responses. Data were analyzed by a factorial

TABLE 6

A Comparison of Fifth-and Sixth-Grade Subjects from Causal and Regular Classrooms with Respect to the Selection Variable

	Causal	Regular	Total	Chi Square	p
Fifth Grade					
High Group	44 (29.2)[a]	15 (29.8)	59		
Low Group	8 (22.8)	38 (23.2)	46		
Total	52	53	105	31.65[c]	<.001
Sixth Grade[b]					
High Group	61 (46.5)[a]	32 (46.5)	93		
Low Group	23 (37.5)	52 (37.5)	75		
Total	84	84	168	18.88[c]	<.001

[a] Figures in parentheses are expected frequencies.

[b] Reproduced with permission from Child Development Publications from a previous publication of the author (Muuss, in press).

[c] Chi Square with Yates correction for continuity.

analysis of variance design followed by *t* tests. The findings of the study may be summarized as follows:

1. Fifth- and sixth-grade Ss who are high causally oriented respond to measures of security, anxiety, and L responses in the direction that might be considered as indicative of mental health. The high causally oriented subjects show more security, less anxiety, and give fewer L responses than low causally oriented Ss.
2. The obtained differences are equally obvious for the fifth- ($N = 105$) as well as for the sixth-grade Ss ($N = 154$).
3. The differences between grade levels are inconsistent: fifth graders are more secure, sixth graders are less anxious. There is no between grade level difference on the L-scale.
4. For sixth-grade Ss there is no correlation, for fifth-grade Ss there is a very low but significant correlation between insecurity and anxiety.
5. Even though there are small but significant relationships between intelligence and the criterion variables, the obtained difference between the high causal and low causal groups on the criterion variables cannot be explained on the basis of differences in intelligence.
6. The experimental classes designed to develop a causal understanding of the dynamics of human behavior contribute significantly more high causally oriented Ss, while the regular control classes contribute more low causally oriented Ss to this study.

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FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATION IN CHILDREN

Alex F. Perrodin

Teachers are constantly making judgments as to the degree of cooperation manifested by their pupils. When children are cooperative, teaching is a most enjoyable task. But what factors affect the development of this trait so highly characteristic of a democratic citizen? To what extent do various factors of home, community, and school life affect the development of cooperation in a child?

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In an attempt to determine the possible relationships of certain factors of home, community, and school life to the development of cooperation in children, a study was made of the 352 children enrolled in fourth through seventh grades of an elementary school. The children in this school located in a small southern city came from mixed socio-economic backgrounds.

Procedure

Data reported in this study were derived from a comparison of ranks on cooperation earned on the Behavior Preference Record (by Hugh B. Wood, published by the California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28, California) and responses to a personal data sheet consisting of 37 items of home, community, and school information.

The Behavior Preference Record is an evaluation instrument on which boys and girls in grades 4-12 may indicate their knowledge of, and preference for, certain kinds of social behavior in typical home, community, and school situations. In addition to cooperation, this test attempts to evaluate the traits of friendliness, integrity, leadership, and responsibility. Although all of these characteristics were studied with relation to items on the pupil information sheet, this article is limited to the study of factors affecting children's preferences for cooperative behavior.

Cooperation is defined by the Behavior Preference Record as a characteristic of democratic behavior in which the child expresses a preference to deal with others in an adaptive, conformative, and helpful way.

The personal data sheet used collected information as to the child's grade level, sex, age, father's and mother's employment, sibling relationships, length of residence in community, in present house, in present school, attendance at church, scout groups, "Y" groups, ballroom dancing instruction groups, popularity in peer group, leadership experience as class officer, representative on school council, or service patrol, TV viewing habits, reading habits, and reading achievement.

An IBM tabulating machine was used to facilitate the handling of the data obtained from these two instruments.

Findings

TABLE 1 indicates that sixth graders tended to score lowest and seventh graders highest in cooperation preferences. A further study of the 352 children by age groups revealed no pattern of growth or decline in cooperation from age nine through age fourteen, although the thirteen-year-olds scored significantly higher than other age levels.

TABLE 1

Distribution of Ranks in Cooperation by Grades

Rank	Grades									
	Four		Five		Six		Seven		Totals	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very High	3	3.1	1	0.9	4	5.3	12	16.0	20	5.7
High	29	30.2	40	37.7	16	21.3	23	30.7	108	30.7
Average	43	44.8	45	42.5	28	37.3	34	45.3	150	42.6
Low	16	16.7	11	10.4	12	16.0	4	5.3	43	12.2
Very Low	5	5.2	9	8.5	15	20.0	2	2.7	31	8.8
Totals	96	100.0	106	100.0	75	99.9	75	100.0	352	100.0

TABLE 2

Distribution of Ranks in Cooperation by Sex

Rank	Boys		Girls		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very High	13	6.7	7	4.4	20	5.7
High	69	35.8	39	24,5	108	30.7
Average	72	37.3	78	49.1	150	42.6
Low	26	13.5	17	10.7	43	12.2
Very Low	13	6.7	18	11.3	31	8.8
Totals	193	100.0	159	100.0	352	100.0

Boys tended to score higher than girls in preferences for cooperation, as indicated in TABLE 2. This finding is contrary to the usual teacher judgment of actual behavior and that reported by Perkins (4, p. 228).

An examination of certain family and home factors revealed no significant differences in ranks in cooperation in relation to the fathers' employment. Those children whose fathers were self-employed or employed by the university tended to be slightly higher in cooperation than those children whose fathers were not self-employed.

Approximately forty percent of the children's mothers were employed full or part-time outside the home. This factor and the factor of thirty-one percent of the mothers not being home when the child returned from school in the afternoon had no significant relationship to the child's rank in cooperation.

TABLE 3 indicates that the youngest or younger child in the family tended to score higher in cooperation than other siblings or the child without brothers or sisters.

Children who rated very high or high in the cooperation portion of the Behavior Preference Record tended to be those who had lived in the same house all or most of their lives; had lived in the community half or more of their lives; and had attended the present school for two or more years. Stability of home and school life had a slightly favorable effect upon children's responses to preferences for cooperation.

TABLE 3

Distribution of Students Rating Very High or High in Cooperation in Relation to Home Factors

	Rank in Cooperation			
	Very High		High	
	N	%	N	%
1. Father is:				
a. self-employed	3	7.9	12	31.6
b. employed by another	12	4.8	72	28.9
c. employed by university	1	3.5	11	37.9
d. in armed services	2	11.1	5	27.8
2. Mother is:				
a. employed away from home	7	5.0	45	32.1
b. not employed away from home	13	6.1	63	29.7
c. usually home in p.m.	15	6.1	75	30.7
d. usually away in p.m.	5	4.6	33	30.6
3. Child is:				
a. oldest or older child	11	7.9	31	22.3
b. middle child	3	4.8	21	33.3
c. youngest or younger child	5	4.9	42	40.8
d. an only child	1	2.1	14	29.8
4. Child has lived in community:				
a. all of life	9	4.6	63	32.1
b. more than half of life	4	6.0	22	32.8
c. less than half of life	7	7.9	23	25.8

TABLE 4

Distribution of Students Rating Very High or High in Cooperation in Relation to Community Participation Factors

	Rank in Cooperation			
	Very High		High	
	N	%	N	%
1. Church or church school:				
a. attends regularly	19	5.8	100	30.5
b. does not attend regularly	1	4.2	8	33.2
2. Boy or Girl Scout groups:				
a. participates regularly	1	1.3	26	32.5
b. does not participate	19	7.0	82	30.1
3. YMCA or YWCA program:				
a. participates regularly	6	6.1	35	35.7
b. does not participate	14	5.5	73	28.7
4. Ballroom dancing classes:				
a. has participated	6	6.7	34	38.2
b. has not participated	14	5.3	74	28.1

TABLE 5

Distribution of Students Rating Very High or High in Cooperation in Relation to Televiewing and Reading Factors

Factor	Rank in Cooperation			
	Very High		High	
	N	%	N	%
1. Time spent per week watching TV:				
a. 25 hours or more	6	5.0	43	36.1
b. 20-24 hours	6	8.3	22	30.6
c. 15-19 hours	3	7.5	6	15.0
d. 10-14 hours	5	7.7	18	27.7
e. 5-9 hours	0	0.0	14	42.4
f. 1-4 hours	0	0.0	5	25.0
g. none at all	0	0.0	0	0.0
2. TV preferences:				
a. comedy	2	3.1	14	21.9
b. westerns	8	11.6	22	31.9
c. musical	2	5.0	18	45.0
d. adventure	6	4.7	38	29.7

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Factor	Rank in Cooperation			
	Very High		High	
	N	%	N	%
3. Books read during past eight months:				
a. 50 or more	6	11.5	19	36.5
b. 40-49	0	0.0	6	28.6
c. 30-39	1	4.2	8	33.3
d. 20-29	7	9.7	19	26.4
e. 10-19	5	5.3	27	28.4
f. 1-9	1	1.3	27	34.2
g. none	0	0.0	2	22.2
4. Preference in book types:				
a. fiction	14	6.0	71	30.3
b. biography	4	8.2	16	32.7
c. science	1	4.0	7	28.0
d. historical	0	0.0	9	45.0
5. Number of comic books read per week:				
a. 20 or more	1	2.7	11	29.7
b. 10-19	3	5.4	18	32.1
c. 5-9	7	11.5	21	34.4
d. 1-4	8	5.9	43	31.6
e. none	1	1.6	15	24.2
6. Reading achievement level:				
a. 6 months or more above GP	2	2.3	32	37.2
b. at GP plus or minus 6 months	1	1.5	27	39.7
c. 6 months or more below GP	1	2.6	7	17.9
7. Change in reading achievement in six month period:				
a. 1 year or more gain	1	1.4	23	31.1
b. 6-10 months gain	1	2.7	14	37.8
c. 0-5 months gain	2	2.9	25	35.7
d. 1-5 months loss	0	0.0	4	36.4
e. 6 months or more loss	0	0.0	0	00.0

Those children who attended church or church school and those who attended a boy or girl scout group regularly did not score significantly higher on cooperation than those who participated less. However, the children who attended YMCA, YWCA, or ballroom dancing classes did rate higher than non-participators in these activities. Of those who did attend YMCA or YWCA activities, the children who participated for five or more hours per week rated considerably higher in cooperation than those of lesser participation.

A student's relative popularity with his classmates seemed to have little if any relationship to his rank on cooperation. Those children who were selected on a sociometric question by five or more classmates did not score significantly differently from those not chosen or those chosen by a lesser number.

Children selected as class officers did not score higher than nonselectees. In this school an outstanding citizen is selected in each classroom each week. Children so selected and those who served on the school council, and/or school safety patrol tended to rate very high or high on cooperation more frequently than those who were not selected for these positions.

A study of television viewing habits indicated that more than half of the children estimated that they watched television more than twenty hours per week. Only three children of the 352 stated that they did not watch television at all. Those who did spend over twenty hours per week in televiewing also tended to rank high in cooperation, and did not appear to have program preferences which differed from those who scored lower.

Children who read extensively also tended to score high or very high on cooperation. About half of the children stated they had read twenty or more books (other than textbooks) during the preceding eight months. Those who read more than fifty books in this period scored much higher in cooperation than did those reading fewer books.

Over half the children stated that they read less than five comic books per week, although over one fourth of the children stated that they read more than ten per week. Those who did read from five to nine comic books per week rated significantly higher in cooperation than did those who read no comic books.

A comparison of reading achievement with ranks on cooperation indicated that those reading at six months or below their grade placement scored considerably lower than those reading at or above their grade placement. This is understandable as the Behavior Preference Record is a group test requiring the child to read material at his grade level.

Findings and Conclusions

1. Boys tended to score higher in preference for cooperation than did girls.

TABLE 6

Distribution of Students Rating High or Very High in Cooperation in Relation to School Factors

Factor	Rank in Cooperation			
	Very High		High	
	N	%	N	%
1. Length of enrollment in this school:				
a. all school years	7	4.0	59	33.3
b. three years or more	5	7.3	21	30.9
c. two years	6	10.3	16	27.6
d. one year or less	2	4.1	12	24.5
2. Child's relationship to peers:				
a. selected as class officer	11	5.9	56	30.3
b. never selected as class officer	9	5.4	52	31.1
c. selected as school council representative	7	7.7	29	31.9
d. never selected as school council representative	13	5.0	79	30.3
e. selected to serve on safety patrol	11	13.4	20	24.4
f. not selected to serve on safety patrol	5	7.3	19	27.5
g. selected as outstanding citizen of class	9	4.7	65	33.9
h. not selected as outstanding citizen of class	11	6.9	43	26.9
i. selected as friend:				
1) by five or more peers	2	5.7	12	34.3
2) by four peers	2	8.7	6	26.1
3) by three peers	2	4.2	13	27.1
4) by two peers	4	5.3	24	31.6
5) by one peer	4	4.3	25	26.6
6) not selected	6	7.9	28	36.8

2. Stability of home and school life had a slightly favorable effect upon children's preferences for cooperation.

3. Participation in YMCA or YWCA children's activities appeared to have a closer relationship to preferences for cooperation than did participation in other community activities.

4. Preferences for cooperation did not seem to be a factor related to child's popularity with his classmates except when it came to making choices for the school council and the school safety patrol.

5. Children who watched television twenty hours or more per week expressed greater preferences for cooperative behavior than did those who viewed television a lesser number of hours.

6. Children who read extensively indicated greater preference for cooperative behavior than those less interested and those less capable in reading.

The Behavior Preference Record is a useful instrument for the teacher interested in studying preferences of his pupils for cooperative behavior. It can be utilized as a discussion guide for encouraging group reactions to problem situations requiring choices of behavior. A comparison of pupil ranks in cooperation with certain factors of home, community, and school life reveals some tendencies of possible value to students of child development. Further study is needed to determine the relationships of children's preferences for cooperative behavior as indicated by this instrument and the actual behavior of the children in group situations requiring group behavior. The influence of cultural expectations and the need for peer approval undoubtedly have a considerable effect upon what the child actually does as contrasted to what he indicates are his preferences for behavior in written test situations.

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PART 5

Counseling Elementary School Children

Professional counselors engaged in work with children in elementary school settings is a relatively new concept. Many reasons, however, have been given for the development and justification for such services. Perhaps the most important argument for guidance and counseling in elementary schools is based on educators' observations of children's behavior which suggest personal and educational problems. Educators have observed that children who experience problems in elementary school very often experience compounded difficulties by the time they reach secondary schools; therefore, a number of authors have stated the need for developing programs of guidance and counseling at the elementary school level.

Professors Paul F. Munger, Gerald B. Kranzler, George Roy Mayer and Calvin O. Dyer conducted an experimental study at the University of Indiana to assess results of counseling fourth-grade children, using sociometric status as the criterion. The results of this study should lead others in the field to pursue further investigations to determine effective approaches to the counseling process.

Professor Richard C. Nelson suggests utilizing unstructured play media when counseling elementary school children. Specifically, he entertained three basic questions in his paper: (1) Should the elementary school counselor use play media? (2) How should the elementary school counselor employ these media? (3) How unstructured should materials be? Nelson concludes that the utilization of play as a tool for the elementary school counselor should be viewed as a facilitator for expressing and working through concerns, and not as a means for analyzing the child's behavior. The equipment selected for unstructured materials should invite wide-range responses from the child.

Up to the present time little has been written regarding professional counseling of children in the elementary schools. Carefully thought-out counseling methods and techniques should be tried and researched in the future. Only then can counselor-educators develop the kind of professional counselors who can meet the challenge and demands of working with elementary school children exhibiting personal and educational problems.

COUNSELING WITH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

GERALD D. KRANZLER, GEORGE ROY MAYER,
CALVIN O. DYER, PAUL F. MUNGER

During recent years an increasing interest has been shown on the part of educational authorities and the general public in counseling and guidance services at the elementary school level. One of the most recent manifestations of this interest has been the provision for the support of such services by the federal government in the 1964 extension of the National Defense Education Act.

Many reasons are given for this extension of counseling and guidance services to the elementary school. Perhaps the most cogent argument is based on the observation that many of the problems and difficulties displayed by adolescents seem to develop before entrance into the secondary school, and that many adolescent are "just too far gone to be helped." Some authors have stated the need for these services in the elementary school, among them Rehage (1963), Wolfbein (1959), Sievers (1963), Smith and Eckerson (1963), Cottingham (1959), Meeks (1962), Conant (1959), and Camp (1955).

Very little evidence concerning the effectiveness of these services at this level has been reported. Some studies, such as the one by Munger, *et al.* (1964), fail to reject the null hypothesis concerning differences between counseled and uncounseled elementary school students. Failure to reject the null hypothesis in an experimental study does not, of course,

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Gerald D. Kranzler, George Roy Mayer, Calvin O. Dyer, and Paul F. Munger necessarily reject an alternative hypothesis. Purkey (1962) and Ohlsen (1964) report impressions concerning the process and outcomes of counseling with this age group, but do not present enough objective data on which to base an opinion concerning its effectiveness. Evidence concerning the results of psychotherapy is available but tends to be inconclusive. Therapists, such as Dorfman (1955), present what may be considered positive results. She worked with 9- to 12-year-olds once a week, seeing them a minimum of ten times. Results indicated reliable shifts in adjustment ratings which persisted over a year's time. Her study may be considered methodologically inadequate, however, in that adequate controls were not provided.

The present study was an attempt to assess results of counseling with fourth-grade children using sociometric status as a criterion. The rationale for the use of this criterion is that sociometric status has been shown to be related to many other personal and social characteristics such as: achievement (Gade, 1961; Williams, 1958; Grossman & Wrighter, 1948; Brown, 1954; Feinberg, 1953; Ohlsen & Dennis, 1951), various measured personality characteristics (Austin, 1948; Brown, 1954; Hunt & Solomon, 1942; Smith, 1958; Smith, 1950; Loban, 1953), social skills (Bretsch, 1952; Breck, 1950; McCrow & Tolbert, 1953; Biddulph, 1954), and physical skills (Polansky, *et al.*, 1950). Cox, (1953) attempted to measure change attributable to psychotherapy, utilizing both TAT responses and sociometric status as criterion measures. He concluded that sociometric status seems to be a valid index of behavioral change. In the present study, it was anticipated that the combination of special attention and close personal relationships provided children assigned to counseling would result in significantly greater gain in sociometric status on the part of these students when compared with a control group.

Procedure

Administration of Pre-Test. A sociometric instrument was administered to four fourth-grade classes at Indiana University Elementary School during early December, 1963. The instrument was administered by each of the fourth-grade teachers. Each teacher was asked to stress confidentiality, to inform the students that they might choose a boy or girl who was absent if they so desired, and that groups would be arranged so that they would be able to sit near one or more of the boys or girls they had chosen. The sociometric instrument employed asked each student to list three students with whom he would most like to sit, work on committees, and play. Students were told that those chosen might be the same for all three tasks or they might be different. When the number of choices received by each student had been tabulated, each of the four teachers was given a seating chart or suggested committee work groupings in which each student was placed with at least one of his choices. The five students of lowest sociometric status were placed with their first choices.

Selection and Assignment of Subjects. The five students in each fourth-grade classroom with the lowest number of choices were selected as subjects of this study. The subjects were then randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions. The conditions were: (1) counseling, (2) teacher guidance, and (3) control. From each of the four classrooms two subjects were assigned to the counseling condition, one to the teacher guidance condition, and two to the control condition.

Counseling Condition Described. The eight subjects assigned to the counseling condition met as a group twice a week for six weeks. After six weeks the group was broken into two groups, each meeting once a week and, in addition, each subject met individually with the counselor once a week. This procedure was continued for another 12 weeks.

The subjects were told that the purpose of counseling was to provide them with a setting in which they could discuss any concerns or difficulties that they or their friends might have, and that anything they said would be held in confidence by the counselor. They were informed of the limits of the situation: that their actions could not be destructive to school property and that no physical harm could be done to any other member of the group. A client-centered approach was used (Rogers, 1951). A few excerpts from some of the individual counseling sessions are included here to indicate the "tone" of the sessions.

A counseling situation involving a fourth-grade boy (B) and an elementary school counselor (C):

B. Well, I don't know now. Aw, uh, I don't have any troubles so I just can't think of them right off.

C. Find it kind of difficult to bring these to mind, now that you are here?

B. Well, for one thing, at school I think I have too much work to do. I—aw—my teacher she, aw, gives us reading assignments in the afternoon and work numbers, and just what's going to happen today—she put reading assignments upon the board then she put spelling, a spelling sheet, after she passed out spelling sheets, and now we're supposed to do that and she's going to call up a reading group and I know I'm not going to have it done cause I'll still be on my spelling sheet. Well, that's the only trouble, see?

C. She kind of gives you too much and you just can't . . . .

B. Yeah.

C. Get enough time to get it all done.

B. Um uh, and then . . .

* * *

D. I know, if I don't do something, I'm going to have to take the fourth grade over again and that's what I've been worried, ah—get worried about ______ either I'll have to take the fourth grade over or I'll have to go to summer school next year, this summer, I mean.

C. You think that you're doing pretty poorly in the fourth grade.

B. Um-hum and in arithmetic—I got 4-4's in a row, Mrs. ______ put in there—I, had to put forth more effort and then between the last two report cards I had, I had to go down into a lower arithmetic group.

* * *

B. Well, I don't know — I just can't think straight any more.

C. Everything's kind of confused and mixed up.

B. Yeah.

C. A lot of different things, ah, kind of pulling on you at the same time.

B. Uh—huh, and I just don't know what to do next! And even the same problems shorten down even in my school work. Now, ah, the teacher gives us all, all this work to do, and when I start on something, the teacher says gym time and then, I don't know.

C. You kind of find it hard to concentrate on your school work with all these other problems bothering you.

B. Um—huh. Yeah.

* * *

Excerpts from first individual interview with a fourth-grade boy. Boy (B)—Counselor (C).

B. I remember once I spat in my mother's face. She slapped me and shoved me down. She treats me like a little tiny baby about that big. She pulls me apart. I tease Mother a little, too.

C. She makes you feel kinda small at times.

B. Uh, huh.

C. Like a little child.

B. Yea, I don't like it either. I wish I could treat her like a little tiny child, but I know what would happen if I tried it. My dad would get ahold of me. I remember I don't want to get in trouble but I got in worse trouble, I started a fire down at building 16.

Teacher Guidance Condition Described. The four students assigned to the teacher guidance condition were identified to the teachers as children of low sociometric status. The teachers were given a list of procedures to use that were derived from the literature on sociometry which were thought to be helpful in dealing with children of low sociometric status. The list included suggested procedures such as praising the student's work, giving him important tasks to perform, allowing him to work in groups with students he likes, etc.

Control Condition Described. Neither the eight subjects who had been assigned to the control condition nor their teachers were informed that they were subjects of this study and no unusual attention was given to them.

Administration of First Post-Test. Near the end of April, 1964, about five months after the start of treatments, the counseling and teacher guidance conditions of this study were officially terminated. At that time the sociometric instrument employed as a pre-test was administered a second time.

Administration of the Second Post-Test. In November, 1964, seven months after the termination of counseling and teacher guidance, the sociometric instrument was administered a third time. By this time all subjects had been promoted to the fifth grade and had been placed in classrooms with many children who had had little or no previous contact with them.

Results

Data Analyzed. The data of primary interest in this study were those pertaining to change in sociometric status. Increase or decrease in sociometric status was measured by comparing the total number of choices received by a subject on a post-test with the number of choices he received on the pre-test. For example, if he received two choices on the pre-test and six on the post-test, he was assumed to have increased in sociometric status. TABLE 1 presents the results of a comparison between the pre- and post-sociometric testings.

At the time of the first post-testing, as indicated in TABLE 1, which was soon after termination of treatment conditions, none of the subjects

TABLE 1

*Number of Subjects Assigned to Each Treatment Condition Who Changed In Sociometric Status Between Pre- and Post-Tests**

Sociometric Status	Counseling		Teacher Guidance		Control	
	First post test	Second post test	First post test	Second post test	First post test	Second test post
Increased	6	5	4	1	2	1
Same	2	2	0	1	1	1
Decreased	0	0	0	1	4	3

*The number of subjects assigned to each treatment condition decreased from one testing to the next due to subjects having moved from the school district.

assigned to the individual counseling and teacher guidance conditions had decreased in sociometric status, while 57 per cent of the control condition subjects (4 out of 7) had decreased. Of the subjects assigned to the individual counseling and teacher guidance conditions, 75 per cent and 100 per cent respectively increased in sociometric status while only 29 per cent of the subjects assigned to the control condition increased. When these differences were tested by means of the Fisher Exact Probability Test (Siegel, 1956), it was found that the counseled group differed significantly from the control group ($P \leq .05$), but the teacher guidance group did not differ significantly from either the counseled or the control group.

At the time of the second post-testing, which was approximately seven months after the termination of treatment conditions, the differences were still statistically significant ($P \leq .05$). The relative percentages of subjects who had increased and decreased in sociometric status in the counseled and control groups remained much the same as at the first post-testing. The sociometric status of subjects assigned to the teacher guidance condition decreased between the two testings. The small initial number of subjejcts assigned to this group ($N = 4$), however, and the loss of one of these subjects, makes it difficult to draw any valid conclusions concerning the effects of this condition.

Since the primary interest of this study was a comparison of counseling versus non-counseling treatment conditions, the teacher guidance and control groups were combined for further statistical analysis. At the first post-testing there were no statistically significant differences between counseled and non-counseled groups, but at the second post-testing, these differences were significant ($P \leqq .05$). The loss of a relatively large number of subjects makes this difference somewhat difficult to interpret. However, it appears to have been a result of the subjects assigned to the teacher guidance condition having failed to maintain increases in sociometric status over the seven-month period.

General Impressions. It was the impression of the writers that in individual counseling both the process and the relationship that developed were quite similar to that involved in counseling older clients. The verbal content, however, was more concrete than for older clients. For the group counseling situation the similarity of process and relationship was not observed. Compared with older clients, the subjects of this study did not seem to be as able or willing to set and enforce limits for the group, and they seemed less interested in the problems of others. These impressions seemed to be in agreement with those reported by Ohlsen (1964).

Some of the difficulties in group counseling with the subjects of the present study may have been a function of the selection procedures. Perhaps it was unrealistic to expect to establish a productive group with students of low sociometric status — they were not well accepted by their classmates, and seemed not to have been acceptable to each other.

Discussion

Differences between the counseling and teacher guidance conditions were not statistically significant, but the data do present some basis for future research. The data seem to suggest that certain kinds of behavioral modification can be brought about in a classroom by the teacher if she is aware of her student's low sociometric status and given suggestions as to what she might do. However, the data also suggests that these behavioral modifications tend not to carry over into a new situation (e.g., a new classroom). On the other hand, students given counseling do maintain their gains in the new situation. Before conclusions can be drawn with confidence, however, similar additional studies utilizing a much larger number of subjects are needed.

Conclusions regarding differences between the counseling and control conditions must also be conservative until further research has been done. Considering all of the factors involved in the counseling condition — group and individual counseling, being called from the classroom at least once a week, and special attention from the teacher — it is difficult to say what factor, or combination of factors, resulted in the apparent success of the counseling condition. Further research studying each of these factors singly and in various combinations is needed. Furthermore, if the differences which appear to be in favor of the counseling condition are attributable to counseling *per se*, the results may not be generalized to all counselors counseling with all children. They can, strictly speaking, be generalized only to a hypothetical population having subjects, counselors, and counseling approach similar to those employed in this study.

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ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELING WITH UNSTRUCTURED PLAY MEDIA

RICHARD C. NELSON

There is much skepticism about the use of play media in elementary school counseling, and, while the argument may be forwarded that any medicine with potency may have the power to hurt, this skill is vital to the elementary counselor for its positive potency. During a National Defense Education Act Guidance and Counseling Institute for elementary counselors in which the author was a staff member, certain events occurred which seem to affirmatively answer the basic question: Should the elementary school counselor use play media? My questions now are:

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How should the elementary school counselor employ these media? How unstructured should materials be?

Let me attack the broader question first, then consider the others in sequence.

The Need for Play Media

The younger elementary school child is only beginning to emerge from the stage wherein all objects are toys, all the time is for play, and work is a construct developed through role playing (accent on the latter word). While he is being indoctrinated successfully into the concept that his work is school work, he remains a creature who, largely through play, develops his social relations, tests various roles and concepts, and works through his frustrations and concerns. In contrast with his older sibling who can and does *verbalize* frustrations, love, anger, and acceptance, the younger child *acts* these feelings. He crashes cars together, he hugs his Mom, he shoots the enemy, and he hands another child a toy. He tends less to talk about his feelings than to live them; he is an activist. He acts both directly and symbolically. As Ginott says: ". . . the child's play is his talk and the toys are his words" (1961, p. 51).

It is often as inappropriate to expect a young child to talk through his feelings as it would be to expect an adult to use a sandbox or puppets to work through his feelings.

Criticisms can be made of ways in which play media are used, certainly, but verbal material is subject to the same basic criticisms. We can over-interpret either, we can over-estimate the cathartic values of either, and we can generally be incompetent in the use of either. One natural value of the play process is that it is much less likely to be subject to the rush and hurry of the verbal interview. Something *is* happening so we are not as likely to push more rapidly than the youngster can take for some gain to occur.

Thus in answering the question, Should the elementary school counselor use play media? the answer must be a qualified yes. The counselor must use media which facilitate communication. Elementary children may be reached through play more readily than through an experience which may be completely foreign, that of sitting down with an adult to "discuss" a concern. One must hasten to add that some first graders are perfectly capable of this, but the experience is too strange and different for many, and the process is too swift for most.

In one of the first supervised interviews an interesting verification of the need for play materials occurred. One counselor-in-training, let's call him Mr. Smith, brought nothing but his briefcase with notebooks and texts to a first interview. Johnny, a fourth grader, discussed the weather, the counseling booth, the microphone and other logical curiosities, then the pace began to lag, it tapered more, and finally long silences developed. Various verbal attempts were made by both parties including some curiosity exhibited by Johnny about Mr. Smith. Suddenly Johnny brightened: "Mr. Smith, you got a pencil and some paper?" As Johnny drew, in that interview, and used clay and pipe cleaners in others he found he could involve himself in play when he had little to say, could smash cars together when he wanted to show frustration, and he could communicate through these media when words failed. Johnny proved the need for play media by asking for them.

Utilizing Play

Assuming, then, that the elementary school counselor will utilize play media, let us first discuss what analysis should be made of play. First, one must consider that the elementary school counselor will work basically with the everyday concerns of "normal" youngsters. If the play (or the verbal counseling) of a child gets into symbolic avenues that suggests the level is beyond the training of the elementary school counselor, a referral should be made. Counseling should be, as Moustakas says:

> . . . a place where the normal child is able to release tensions and frustrations that accumulate in the course of daily living, to have materials and an adult entirely to himself, without any concern with sharing, being cooperative, being considerate, polite or mannerly. He can feel his feelings and express his thoughts all the way knowing that he is accepted and revered unconditionally (1959, p. 42).

The role of the counselor, beyond being alert to referrals, should involve acceptance as the major tool. Fundamental in his thinking should be the acknowledgment that depth analysis is not needed, nor should it be verbalized, if we assume the child falls within the normal range.

The closer that statements relating to play behavior can relate to the actual behavior, the more they should be preferred. Statement number two should be preferred when a child suddenly and violently crumbles a clay figure he has called his brother.

1. You really hate your brother so you smashed him.
2. You're very angry so you crushed the clay (or it).

He may go on to verbalize statement number one, and that is his right. If we are truly understanding him, however, we don't need to go beyond the immediate behavior. In a true sense, then, reflection even in elementary school counseling with play media is to be preferred over analytical statements.

Play should be treated as if it were verbalized behavior with the response made to the emotional content of the behavior or to the behavior itself rather than to any extension into the interpretive realm. Following are three capsule situations followed by two responses; the latter response in each pair is to be preferred.

Ted is calm to outward appearances as he draws a picture showing a plane bombing a city.

1. You're angry and you wanted the pilot to bomb the city.
2. You've drawn a man in a bombing plane.

Sue starts to feed her doll, then drinks from the bottle herself.

1. You want to be the baby now.
2. The bottle is for you now.

Mary's eyes fill with tears after paint runs on her picture.

1. That's all right, we'll just get another sheet of paper.
2. It bothers you when things don't turn out well.

In the first two situations, it may well be that Ted and Sue will confirm the attitude conveyed in the first statement, and there is nothing in the second statement to deter that attitude from being stated. How much better it is if the statement comes from the child and is not suggested by the counselor. In the third situation there is denial of the emotion, a soothing that says: Don't get upset in here. There is rarely a place for such a response in counseling normal youngsters in the elementary school. The opposite condition should be provided.

It is tempting to deal in much greater detail with the utilization of play in elementary school counseling and limitations to be placed on play, but let me sum up by saying that the objective of counseling should be to create conditions for expression and communication, and to avoid, generally, viewing play from an analytical frame of reference. We must create play conditions in which the child can be himself and express himself without the need to protect himself from a watchful and analytical eye.

Structured versus Unstructured Materials

The advantage in counseling with play media is clearly with those items that may be used in a variety of ways and to express varied attitudes and feelings. Ginott (1961) suggests many articles that may be used in psychotherapy and develops a rationale for these, after first acknowledging the debate that appears in the literature over the relative merits of various materials. Those that may be readily adopted for use by the elementary counselor are clay, paints, crayons, paper, pipe cleaners, building materials, toy telephones, puppets, dolls, perhaps a dollhouse with furniture, a bounce-back figure, rubber knives, cap gun, typewriter, and finger paints, but no counselor should feel particularly handicapped if, due to the necessity of mobility, all the equipment must be carried in a small briefcase. Then, drawing materials, some constructions materials, such as scissors, paper, pipe cleaners, and tooth picks, plus some soft hand puppets or small dolls may well suffice.

Contraindicated generally are highly structured toys with only one use. Games, by and large, especially those which would divert the counselor's attention from being directly on the child, should be lower on the preference list. Too-pretty or too-fragile dolls and toys are less valuable.

Two incidents from the Institute point up the values of unstructured materials. Two counselors, zealous to provide materials appealing to elementary children, and meaning very well, filled brief cases with games, pretty dolls, and miscellaneous highly structured materials.

Miss Brown found that the child she was assigned, a pretty, bright first grader, absorbed herself in wandering from one item to another, chattering happily, largely for her own amusement, then suddenly picked up the receiver of an imaginary wall telephone and began, really for the first time, to establish meaningful communication. A child without evident personal problems, Betsy still seemed to benefit by the experience of an adult accepting her enthusiasm for some things and her rejection of others. The counseling achieved little depth and was terminated after few contacts, but Betsy learned to do more than "just play"; she learned also that she would be accepted without reservation. And Miss Brown learned that highly structured materials may limit communication.

Miss Green included in her structured supplies an airplane model kit which her counselee, Jack, was happy to find. He busied himself almost worldlessly for more than two meetings. The choice of materials was not bad at all, as later information indicated, since Jack had some feeling of being inadequate in comparison to his older siblings and often gave up on tasks rather than work through them. Normally, however, the communicative and expressive advantages of models would be rather limited. At any rate, after the model was completed Jack began to break various colored toothpicks and to glue them on paper to form designs or pictures about which he talked at some length. He used the experience both to express feeling and as a means for communication. The change from the model and little communication to the construction and more communication was not abrupt. One may speculate that Jack needed the freedom not to speak in order to feel the freedom to speak. But one can also wonder whether absorption in a detailed task, the limits of which were set by a manufacturer, served to inhibit the progress of counseling somewhat. The counselor seemed to be a bit surprised that a child would come to prefer and use unstructured materials despite having great varieties of structured materials. To her credit, however, she had created an atmosphere which permitted Jack to be himself and to try his own ideas rather than follow the dictates of precision materials.

Conclusion

The elementary school counselor must feel free to utilize play. This, the child's own means of expression and communication, is indispensable to counseling with younger elementary children. As a tool of the elementary counselor, play should be viewed as a facilitator to expressing and working through concerns, not as a means to analysis of the child's behavior. The equipment selected for play should run heavily in the direction of unstructured materials that invite a wide range of response and expressive utilization by the child.

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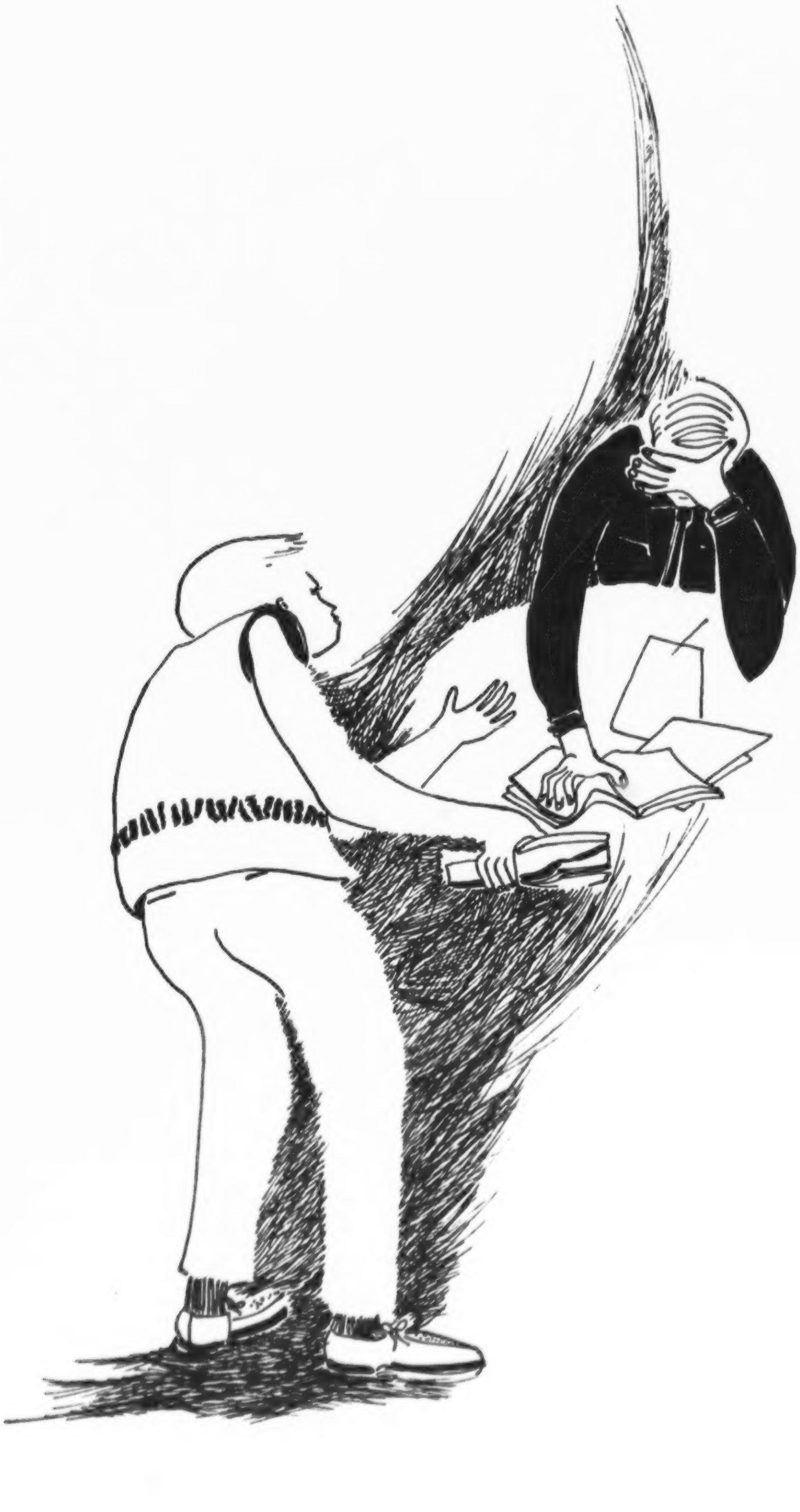
The Elementary School Counselor — Counseling Parents



PART 6

Counseling Parents of Elementary School Children

The elementary school teacher plays an important role in the total guidance program. Edward Landry discusses a number of practical suggestions for utilization by teachers when working with parents of troubled children. The ideas developed in Landry's article could well be used by the members of the guidance team, such as the counselor, principal, psychologist, or by the various personnel employed in family agencies and child-guidance clinics. The elementary school counselor could enhance his counseling relationships by incorporating Landry's ideas into his roles of counselor.

Findings resulting from research conducted by Dr. John R. Thurston at Wisconsin State University–Eau Claire, has formed the bases for his position regarding counseling parents of severely handicapped children. Dr. Thurston discusses effective counseling methods for reaching parents of such children who are, in general, highly sensitive, suspicious, anxious and unhappy individuals. All who work with handicapped children and their parents can benefit from the concepts expressed in Dr. Thurston's paper.

Effective and productive conferences with parents of young children require knowledge and skill in interviewing. A sensitive, empathic teacher, counselor and administrator will develop his own style for dealing with problem situations best when he incorporates knowledge with his own individual personality. Eleanor Cartwright Crocker has suggested methods and techniques for conducting meaningful interviews with parents. Her approach is well-founded in personality and counseling theory and in many years of personal experience working with children and parents.

Counselors who work with parents of children who have personal and educational problems need to utilize unique techniques skillfully. Experimentation and depth study of presently used methods and techniques should be conducted and reports published. New and even more productive approaches could emerge from careful study and evaluation of presently used techniques.

WORKING WITH PARENTS OF TROUBLED CHILDREN

EDWARD LANDY

If I suggest that teachers can help parents deal with problems their children present, some people may feel that I attribute to teachers knowledge and skill which they may not possess. Others may ask, "Why should this be the business of teachers? Why don't they stick to their task of teaching and let the problems of mental health be handled by the people trained specifically in this field?"

Regardless of such attitudes, the fact remains that whether he wants to or not, whether he is trained in mental health or not, the teacher is involved in conferences with parents.

The ways in which he responds, asks questions, offers advice, and behaves in general have profound and important influences on the feelings of the parent about the school, the teacher, and his child.

Couple this fact with the great shortage of professional workers and facilities in the field of mental health and the argument as to whether teachers should be involved becomes an academic one.

Can teachers be helpful to parents – not as amateur psychiatrists or psychologists, but as teachers? Let us examine some parent-teacher conferences as we attempt to answer this question. Although I will describe hypothetical situations of teachers dealing with one particular mother, I believe that the suggestions about establishing a good teacher-parent relationship have general validity.

Miss T. has invited Robert's mother, Mrs. M., to discuss the boy's behavior in school. Robert is now in the third grade and has a history of poor conduct and performance in past years. He is difficult to control,

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annoys other children, does not do tasks assigned to him, and is easily distracted. He is at grade level in reading and arithmetic as measured by standard tests.

The school psychologist, who serves an entire school system of 12,000 pupils, did some diagnostic work with Robert and reported a Stanford-Binet IQ of 120. The psychologist also administered some projective tests which seemed to point to much fear of being hurt and considerable hostility toward Robert's older brother and younger sister. Mrs. M. herself has been described as difficult and arrogant in her relationships with teachers in the past.

Miss T. had no choice but to call for the interview. If Robert's behavior became worse, it might be necessary to ask the principal to suspend him.

Mrs. M. opened the interview by asking, "What is it you want?" She was very controlled, and her face seemed to convey a feeling of mild contempt for the young teacher rather than any open hostility.

A situation like this can be either very anxiety-provoking or can lead to counter feelings of anger. If the teacher succumbs to these feelings, it is probably safe to say that all is lost as far as developing any helpful relationship between mother and teacher.

This leads to our first suggestion to you as teacher: *Try to avoid being frightened by a parent or getting angry.* There may be times when your tolerance is stretched beyond endurance and possibly some righteous anger with the parent may be salutary, but such situations are very rare and an angry teacher is usually an insecure one.

Let us look again at the interview between Mrs. M. and Miss T. How should Miss T. have responded to the opening gambit by Mrs. M.? There are no sure-fire formulas or panaceas, but a response such as "I am concerned about helping Robert and I need your help" might have been useful. She should have said this pleasantly, firmly, and quietly. Often the tone of voice and accompanying expressions and mannerisms are just as important as what is said.

This interchange suggests some additional points to keep in mind.

Don't accuse or blame either the parent or yourself. Miss T's attitude should be that here is a situation to be met co-operatively.

Indicate a willingness to listen and then really listen. It is amazing how receptive to suggestions people become when they are free to express angry feelings without fear of retaliation. It is important to listen for the real meaning a parent is consciously or unconsciously trying to convey, to identify this meaning if possible, and to convey to the parent the realization that you really are "tuning in."

If you are not very sure of what you should say in response to a parent's question or comment, it may be better to say nothing or to ask *another question.* The question may simply be: "I'm not sure I really understand what you're telling me. Would you please expand on what you have said or try explaining it to me again?" There are certain intangible values which often develop out of this practice. The parent comes to realize, perhaps for the first time, that you are not trying to pass judgment on him or his child but are sincerely trying to be helpful.

Let us return again to the interview between Mrs. M. and Miss T. Mrs. M's response, said with considerable hostility, might well have been: "What is wrong with Robert?" One cannot expect immediate miracles in dealing with a difficult parent. It may take as much as a full hour or several hour-long interviews before Miss T. is accepted at face value, or sadly enough, she may never succeed in establishing a genuinely trusting relationship.

Let us assume, however, that the interview does proceed with some success, that the mother thaws and begins to tell of her difficulties at home with Robert. She also tells of her difficulities in managing her family, her health, her husband's unreasonableness, and problems with her mother.

In such situations, avoid the twin temptations of sentimental sympathy or advice about situations on which you are not competent to give advice. Above all else, retain a strong sense of humility about your understanding of the total case and your own competency in offering advice. Remember, too, that direct advice is rarely accepted and often resented even when asked for.

Just when and about what is it wise for the teacher to offer advice? Once again let us assume that the interview between Mrs. M. and Miss T. has progressed favorably. Mrs. M. seems genuinely ready and willing to accept advice. At this point Miss T. might well state her perplexity again, repeat her desire to help Robert, and confess to her inadequacy. Would Mrs. M. be willing to accept outside expert counsel on this problem?

Here a conference with the school psychologist might be suggested or even the possibility of a referral to a child-guidance clinic. If these are possible, all to the good. However, let us assume the usual situation of long waiting lists or no available resources. Easy-to-read literature in the area of parent-child relationships could be suggested such as the publications of the Children's Bureau, which are excellently done and very inexpensive. In the area of parent-child and other family relationships it is probably best for the teacher to stop here.

Are there any other suggestions which Miss T. might offer and which legitimately come within her scope and role as teacher? Let us assume that Mrs. M. raises the question of tutoring for Robert. In some instances tutoring may be highly desirable provided it is given by the right person.

It is difficult to say sometimes whether emotional problems have caused deficits in learning or whether the deficits have caused the emotional difficulties. The causes may have been emotional originally, but effects can become causes, and certainly deficits in learning, no matter how caused, can be very troubling to a child.

Here, Miss T. can feel fairly safe (after establishing the right climate) in offering advice. She should know whether Robert is truly behind in his learning and whether he has the potential to make up the gap with the right kind of tutoring. She should try to know the available tutors, what kinds of people they are, how sensitive they are to children, and how sensible are their methods and relationships with children.

Miss T. legitimately might advise Mrs. M. that Robert responds best to certain kinds of handling when it comes to academic learning and that whoever tutors him ought to be the kind of person who could provide the atmosphere necessary for success with Robert. This leads to our next suggestion:

In discussing the child's academic work with the parent, avoid labels such as "lazy." It is legitimate to describe behavior and attitudes as objectively as you can, e.g. "Robert has difficulty in concentrating upon aassigned tasks; for example, the othe day . . ." Or, "Robert cannot seem to learn certain processes in arithmetic as quickly and easily as other children. I don't really understand why. He does work more successfully when given individual attention, so perhaps tutoring may be helpful." Don't say bluntly, "Robert just has no mathematical sense!"

Above all, avoid saying anything about the pupil which may be used by the parent to punish and berate the child. This will be very difficult, because sometimes careful, objective statements are twisted out of context and quoted in distorted fashion by an upset parent.

Let us take one more illustration. Assume Robert is in the ninth grade and is taking first-year algebra. All previous testing and experience with Robert indicate that he should have no real difficulty with algebra and yet he is doing only mediocre work. Mrs. M. asks for an appointment with the algebra teacher.

During the interview she reveals that Robert's father is a scientist and that he has always dreamed of Robert's following in his footsteps – perhaps surpassing him. The father, says Mrs. M., is much upset about Robert's poor work in algebra and has tried working with Robert in the evenings. Mr. M. is impatient and a perfectionist. The mother asks "What shall I do?"

On the basis of the brief description given above, Miss T. might be justified in concluding that part of Robert's difficulties are caused by his father and that Robert is using algebra as a vehicle for his resistance and hostility to him.

It is tempting to fall into the trap of making a quick diagnosis and telling the mother to tell the father to leave Robert alone. However, aside from the questionable validity of the diagnosis, such an action may result only in more trouble, and the teacher may soon find herself in the middle of a quarrel between the mother and father.

However, keeping in mind previous suggestions, one might try an approach such as this. Ask Mrs. M. how long the tutoring by the father has gone on and whether it seems to have been successful.

If the tutoring has been going on for several months with no discernible results, then one can suggest that, simply as an experiment, the father stop his tutoring for an equal period of time just to see what happens. This does suggest, of course, that the teacher is skeptical of the value of the father's tutoring and, to intelligent parents, may also suggest that the teacher feels that the father is at the root of the boy's troubles.

This may bring forth a question by the mother as to why the teacher is suggesting such a step. Here a general answer in terms of the psychology of adolescence often is accepted. For example, one might say that adolescents in general tend to resist direction and control by parents. Then the teacher could add, with a smile, "You know, sometimes the more we push them, the more they resist us."

This leads me to a final suggestion: *Try to give advice in as nonthreatening and nonaccusatory a way as possible*. This means being careful of the subtle implications as well as any overt meaning of what you say. Parents will often relax and become much more cooperative when they realize that the problems they face are common problems and are often an aspect of the growth and development of the child rather than a result of their own mishandling.

Since the area of parent-child relationships is difficult and complex, let us review again the things that the teacher should strive to do when he ventures into this field:

1. Be humble about what he knows and what advice he offers.
2. Be a good listener and try to understand what the parent is really trying to convey.
3. Avoid going on the defensive.
4. Be as truthful and as objective as possible with parents but, in describing a child, avoid labeling.

5. Avoid being emotionally threatening to a parent.
6. Avoid sentimentally sympathizing with a parent.
7. Use resources such as school counselors and psychologists, family agencies, and child-guidance clinics when they are needed.

COUNSELING THE PARENTS OF THE SEVERELY HANDICAPPED

JOHN THURSTON

It has long been realized that the parents of a handicapped child assume a vital role in the establishing of effective treatment and rehabilitation plans. To understand and help the child, it is necessary to understand fully the attitudes and emotional reactions of the parents toward him and his disability. It should be emphasized, however, that it is very important to investigate the adjustment of the parents themselves. As E. C. Smart (4) has said, the production of a handicapped child "strikes at the vital emotional core of the parents." Other authorities (1, 3) have similarly stressed the likelihood of parental difficulties at this time. While it goes without saying that the handicapped child should receive first consideration and attention, the effect upon the parents should not be neglected. To investigate this important area, a survey of parental attitudes was undertaken as part of a comprehensive investigation of 372 institutionalized cerebral palsied patients. Almost without exception, these patients were involved severely neurologically. In his research effort, over 600 parents were given the opportunity to express their reactions regarding the handicap of their child. The Thurston Sentence Completion Form (TSCF) (5) was employed to facilitate their response. In 191 cases (51%), either one or both parents completed the form. It was felt that a brief listing of the survey results might serve as the basis for a discussion of the need for more effective counseling with these parents.

Initial Reaction

As would be expected, virtually all parents experienced emotional upset and anxiety when they learned that they had a handicapped child. While they differed in their initial reaction, most displayed helplessness,

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grief, or guilt in varying degrees. The passage of time has apparently done little to ameliorate this condition. Their knowledge of the disability was poor, with only 4% indicating complete understanding of the nature and cause of cerebral palsy. About one in six stated that they could not understand yet *why* it had happened *to them*. Eighty-six percent of the parents felt that meetings with the parents of other handicapped children were a good thing with only 7% resisting the idea. A surprisingly high 74% said that they felt free to discuss the handicapped child with friends and neighbors. However, their responses frequently conveyed the impression that they were very sensitive and were almost daring anyone to say something "wrong" to them. Twenty-one percent indicated that they did not feel free to engage in *any* discussion of this sort.

As a group, the parents were reluctant to comment on the mistakes others might make in raising a handicapped child. Some cited "spoiling" the child or else being ashamed of him as common errors. While most parents feel that others should act naturally or be sympathetic and understanding when around the handicapped, many indicated that they did not find this to be true. They saw pity and undue curiosity in the attentions of other people. In general, the parents were highly sensitive, suspicious, anxious, and unhappy individuals, the opposite of what might be desired. Their emotional state was such as to interfere with many phases of everyday living. In a very real way, they themselves were handicapped, for they had not become reconciled yet to the realities of their situation. While certain parents had been able to make the adjustment, the responses to the TSCF strongly suggested that a substantial number had not. Even though the emotional state of these parents is only dimly related to the development of the institutionalized children, the extent of unrest and unhappiness in this parental group is such that attention should be directed to it.

Reaching Parents Through Counseling

One might inquire into what happened to these parents and the counseling program as it related to them. This question must be asked unless we are to assume that this degree of emotional turmoil is inevitable for parents having a severely handicapped child. In view of current psychological-psychiatric knowledge, this assumption is considered to be untenable.

What did go wrong? It is beyond our present understanding and certainly beyond the scope of this paper to specify the factors contributing to this state of affairs. However, according to the results of this poll, two areas would appear to be significant in the problem, (1) the parent-physician relationship and (2) the parent-other people relationship.

Directing attention to the first area, it would seem to be obvious that the physician is the key person to inform the parents of the child's handicap. Over two-thirds of the parents stated specifically that their child's condition was made known to them by a physician, either at time of birth or during some subsequent medical examination. Most of the remaining one-third of the parents stated that "retarded development" of the child made them suspect the truth, but it seems highly likely that a physician must have been consulted in cases such as these. The parents traditionally have gone to him for information and counsel. Of all the difficult tasks that a physician must perform, the necessity of informing parents that their child is handicapped must rank high in repugnancy. How does he go about this? What does he say? How does he say it? Does he tend to "soften the blow" by minimizing the difficulty, or are his comments confined to factual statement of the situation as he sees it? Does he at times try to "spare them" by strongly recommending decisive and immediate action if he feels the child should be institutionalized? Does the physician have enough time to listen to the parents? Does he take time? What do the parents say? Where else do they go for assistance? Why do many parents go from physician to physician? How does the physician handle their feelings and answer the questions put forth? The methods and manner of physicians in this role are not known. Additional research in this area would be of great interest. It seems likely that that the approaches are variable with some physicians being highly effective and others less so. Although the dynamics of the "counseling" process are not known at this time, the TSCF findings would seem to indicate much room for improvement. Perhaps the adoption of a program such as will be discussed now, may provide what is needed.

Effective Counseling Methods

Experts in the field think that there are probably three stages in the effective counseling of parents (2). The first stage involves the acceptance of the disability, the second requires setting some rather long-range plans, and the third consists of counseling the parents about attitudes and feelings.

The imparting of factual information to parents is an important, difficult, and time-consuming undertaking. This, in itself, requires considerable skill and experiences on the part of the counselor. Grasping information is always difficult under stressful conditions, and it would appear that there are probably few more upsetting periods than those reported by these parents when they first are told the nature and magnitude of the handicap. It is understandable that the parents are unable to come to a full understanding at that time. In addition, the complexity of the involvement and the abstruse medical terminology may contribute further to the lack of comprehension. It would seem that the physician might use some assistance if counseling is to function adequately. Perhaps the physician should concentrate on being the medical authority in the situation, letting others handle the many functions necessary for effective counseling. Assuming close and continuing liaison with the physician, it would seem that either clinical psychologists or social workers would be qualified to understand the disability and to work with the parents discussing cause, nature, implications. When the parents come to accept the child as he really is, with knowledge of his strengths and weaknesses, the first step of effective counseling has been taken. The first phase might take a very long time in many cases. With this accomplished, however, it then is possible to proceed to the second part of counseling, where long range plans can be made for the child. The counselor may make some suggestions but the importance of parental responsibility in making these vital decisions must be stressed. In the case of the severely handicapped, the problem of institutionalization versus home care must be resolved. The only truly adequate decisions are those that have been arrived at *by the parents* after thorough appraisal of the entire situation and all of the complex ramifications. The parent should be encouraged to talk to the parents of other handicapped children at this time concerning their feelings and problem solutions. This planning phase may involve many counseling interviews. While the educational status of parents has received attention during the counseling, it is after the plans have been made that the counseling may go on to the final stage, concentrating on their attitudes and educational reactions. The parents may be extremely hostile and defensive or very cooperative, or their behavior might place them at some point in between the two extremes. Some display ambivalent feelings and the emotional tone may fluctuate from day to day. To deal with this "feeling level" requires a mature, highly trained, and experienced counselor.

Working with Others

As has been mentioned, clinical psychologists and many social workers have the background to provide this counseling. The training of many ministers and priests emphasizes facets of psychological knowledge that would be helpful in working with these parents. With special education, these and still other professional personnel presumably might be in a position to function effectively as counselors. This additional training requires much in the form of theoretical knowledge and practical application of psychology. Among many other things, the counselor must come to have a good knowledge of himself and his attitudes toward handicaps and the handicapped. If he has not come to accept the handicapped for what they are, he cannot hope to extend the objective assistance that constitutes his true function. He must be aware of his own limitations, those of the child, and those of the parents, as well as those imposed upon him by the sometimes restricted facilities at his disposal. He must not be unduly impressed by these limiting factors but must stand ready as a source of support and realistic optimism. He should realize that amongst the burdensome anxieties and guilts plaguing the parents, are very real strengths of personality and character which may be utilized in providing adequate services for the child. It has been observed that parents who have tried to do everything within their power to help the handicapped individual, somehow or other emerge from this trying situation the better for it.

The second major area of concern, the parent-other people relationships, would seem to provide less in the form of a basis for specific and detailed recommendations. The parents themselves contribute a great deal to the difficulties that they have with others. They are extremely sensitive and defensive in their dealings wtih other people. While effective counseling would do much to remedy this by insuring more comfortable and accepting parents, it would be important to make some effort to modify those actions and attitudes of other people that are perceived as offensive by the parents. How should one act when one is in contact with the handicapped and his parents? This would appear to be a highly individualized matter dependent on the particular parent and child involved. The reactions of the parents may not be determined so much by what another says or does, but by the perception of this action by the parent. If another person asks about the child and offers to help, this may be interpreted by the parent in many different ways, depending upon his emotional state. Such an action may seem to be a manifestation of a pitying and patronizing attitude or it may be viewed as an act of sympathy and helpfulness. It may be viewed as active interest, or as idle curiosity, or in any of a hundred subtly different ways. In spite of their sensitivities, most parents look for some response on the part of others to them and their handicapped child. Many expect a great deal from the community and the individuals who comprise it. They want acceptance and assurance from others either by way of positive, comforting acts or by the elimination of unfavorable reactions.

How to foster the changing from "undesirable" to "desirable" behavior by others would seem to imply much in the form of complete acceptance and understanding of the handicap and what it means. Aside from straight factual presentations, such efforts should stress the feelings and sensitivities of parents, so that people could cope with or at least allow for their tendencies to be tense, worrisome, depressed, and suspicious. This means much in the form of public education and would appear to argue strongly for a continuation and expansion of the various educational programs aimed at enlightening the public regarding the handicapped and their problems.

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DEPTH CONSULTATION WITH PARENTS

ELEANOR CARTWRIGHT CROCKER

One evening recently, while I was trying to keep up with the appetites of my family and the world situation at the same time, I heard the news commentator announce that the station was about to broadcast a message of general interest to parents of young school children. My interest and amazement grew, as the president of the National Education

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Association (NEA) delivered a short talk, the purpose of which was to promote better home-school relations. She was alerting parents, especially of children of kindergarten age, to some of the crises that could be expected. Her general advice in meeting these was to keep a cool head and find out the facts before jumping to the conclusion that Sammy's trousers really were muddy because that horrible little Kevin had pushed him into a puddle on the way home, or that the teacher had yanked the missing button on his coat in rough haste because he wasn't dressing fast enough for outside play.

This set me to reflecting, somewhat nostalgically, about how things have changed since the days when children were sent to school with a lunch pail and the warning: "Mind teacher and don't let me hear of any backtalk from you." At about that same time teaching was considered a calling and teachers dedicated people who were almost shy about accepting pay for the privilege of molding young minds. Although there have been many changes in our world, and so necessarily in the field of education, teaching requires no less sensitive dedication than it did in the little red school house, and some of you might hasten to add that the salaries also are comparable. But, because of our expanding knowledge about human beings, and particularly about how they grow into adults, there are some new areas of which the community, as well as alert educators, are requiring teachers to take notice.

With the growing influence of psychoanalytical thought, particularly its imprint on current theories of child development, our society has come increasingly to take upon itself the burden of health or illness. No longer is deviation (on either side of the norm) thought to be solely the result of genetics, which is to say, beyond our control. If who and what children are does indeed develop mainly through the parent-child relationship and if, as Anna Freud[4] suggests, a child transfers to his teachers feelings and behavior from this relationship, then, willingly or not, the school often finds itself involved in what our elders jealously considered "family affairs." This is particularly clear with the preschool child, whose main needs and gratifications are still being met or frustrated through his parents. How often, for instance, teachers are faced with the situation of a new baby arriving in the home of one of their three- or four-year-olds and one of the following consequences: Mother is to delighted that Jimmy "just adores his baby sister" and has had none of the naughty reactions all the books had prepared her for; however, the child is quite destructive with materials at nursery school, angry with children and especially the teacher, until she, along with Jimmy, wishes he'd never had a baby sister. Or, on the other hand, Andrea's mother is desperate because her lovable daughter has become an absolute brat since the baby arrived. Besides being openly rebellious, she has tried to punch the baby several times; to add insult to injury, she refuses to go home at noon and insists that she is now going to live with the teacher. In either situation the teacher must do *something* – either out of professional concern for the child or out of personal desperation.

Although many types of social work agencies offer a range of services to help people with their problems, the preschool setting is by definition child-centered. Its purposes, which are defined in the literature and recognized by the community, are to provide, as an adjunct to the family, a growth-stimulating experience by means of program and materials, peer and adult relationships, so that the child may develop, as far as he is able, socially, intellectually, physically and emotionally. Another recognized function of some preschool settings includes providing care for children who must be away from home all day. While these have been the traditional areas of responsibility, the field of preschool education is receiving increasing pressure both from the community and from within some branches of the profession to do more earlier in preparing children to cope with the many demands of our complex society. "Modern trends in our society have forced the school to do more of the child's training and guidance that was formerly the task of the home," observes Edith Leonard.[7] It therefore becomes increasingly necessary to interpret the function of preschool education both to ourselves and the public.

Certainly it is not within the defined purpose, skills or knowledge of education to attempt to "treat" a disturbed child or family situation, even though this is affecting a child's ability to progress in school. Although there may sometimes be a fine line of decision as to where and how much the school could help, it should be kept in mind that psychiatric treatment implies a change in over-all behavior resulting from the rechanneling of emotional energies and, like marriage, is not to be entered into unadvisedly. Stated more clearly, psychotherapy is the systematic utilization by a trained therapist of personality dynamics, with the goal of mitigating emotional difficulties. On the other hand, and especially with the preschool child, it is often difficult to assess whether what appears to be disturbed behavior on the part of a child is the result of a normal life crisis, such as the anticipated birth of a sibling, or from a deeply disturbed mother-child relationship or, perhaps, an effect of severe marital conflict. To decide where the teacher and the school stand in relation to the problem, she must usually discuss the situation with the parent.

Although the ensuing discussion may be generally helpful in all contacts with parents, it is specifically aimed at those situations in which a child is in trouble, the school has exhausted its resources within the program, and the parent must be involved if the child is to be helped. Two methods are suggested for dealing with this situation, both a synthesis of thinking from the field of social work. They are intended to aid in learning ways of relating to people, to facilitate working together on a problem.

The rather imposing adjective suggested for this discussion is "depth" consultation with parents. I am rather puzzled as to what to offer as a concise definition for this term. To avoid the old trap of semantics, I suggest for consideration the following definition of what a parent-teacher conference should be: *a focused discussion between teacher and parent, the scope of which is determined by the preschool setting, in which information relative to the nursery situation is shared with the aim of helping the child integrate the preschool experience to the maximum of his capacities.* While it is desirable in such an interview to use some of the same techniques used in an interview to get acquainted with parents, one must conduct oneself in specific ways with a parent when discussing a more "touchy" or feeling-laden subject. Let me now treat these specific ways: (1) the teacher's preparation for such a conference, (2) two methods for consultation, the exploratory and the supportive, (3) techniques for both of these and, in conclusion, (4) some general comments on how conferences can be improved.

Preparation

In preparing for talking with parents, it is helpful to recognize and think through several factors. First, take note of the difference between the classroom setting and a conference, which usually consists of two or, at the most, three persons. Teachers customarily work with a group instead of one person, talk with the children instead of about them, and are in relative control of the group. Consultation with parents, therefore, calls upon the least exercised aspects of a teacher's total professional role. Such a shift in role often makes us uncomfortable and unsure of ourselves. It is important to recognize the source of these usually vague but bothersome feelings. Parents are frequently also unsure of what to expect, and the teacher can do much to put them at their ease at the beginning of a conference by defining her role in relationship to them as well as making clear what this particular conference is for.

As professional people dealing with parents, we need continual self-examination to increase our self-awareness, for our own attitudes and experiences color what we see or hear, how we feel toward parents and what we say to them. People are teachers because they love children; good teachers because they are able to empathize with the child. Therefore, if a teacher senses that a difficult child is constantly angry or resentful toward his parent, it is not surprising that she soon finds herself feeling vaguely irritated and impatient with that mother, even though the latter has been only pleasant and co-operative with the school. We therefore conclude, often against the better judgment of previous experience, that the child has been in the wrong hands and that the right person and educational regime will put him on the road to progress. Although Erik Erikson is a child psychiatrist, he made a point important for all professions who work with children: "Our occupational prejudice is the rejecting mother."[3]

Kathrine D'Evelyn makes the following point:

"One last consideration, but not least in importance, is the sound mental health of the teacher. If he is to confer with the parents and help them to do constructive thinking, he must be reasonably well adjusted emotionally. This does not mean that the teacher must be superhuman. No one ever reaches a state of complete adjustment. It does mean, however, that he should have insight into his own motivations, needs and desires. He should know wherein lie his greatest satisfactions and his faults."[2]

Step one, then, is to take account of yourself, your abilities and your limitations, and how these can be utilized toward the ultimate goal of helping the child.

Next, go over all available material on the child and from this set basic goals for the conference. This includes family background, your summary of the child's experience at nursery, his use of materials, his social relationships, your estimate of his strengths and the areas in which there is difficulty. Again quoting from D'Evelyn:

"The teacher who understands child behavior will find it easier to win the parent's confidence and cooperation, as well as to lead the discussion into constructive planning. At this point the age of the child enters into the picture; the teacher must know what to expect of a given age; he must know whether a child is deviating from the norm enough to cause concern, and must be able to help the parent to understand what to expect of the child."[2]

What is implicit in this statement should be explicated – conferences are not a substitute for creative programming aimed at individualized needs of children. They are an ancillary effort that is indicated when, after skillful and consistent effort on the part of a teacher, the child's problem still persists.

It is necessary to elaborate on setting goals. There are at least two kinds: studied, or those you take with you to the conference; and evolved, or those developed as you talk with the parent and gain new information and impressions. It is enough to say, set your goals but stay flexible – just as you do in the classroom. First impressions may be lasting, but they aren't necesarily accurate. Understanding your goals, an integral part of consultation, is a dynamic process, a combination of what you already know about a child and his parents plus what you are learning during the session.

Third, along with your knowledge about the individual parent, it is important to know something about the typical feelings and attitudes parents bring to a conference, particularly if the child is having difficulty. The basis of this knowledge comes from personality and role theory.

Think for a moment of your own experience as a mother or what you have observed of other mothers as they react when someone else, however loved or trusted, makes an evaluative comment about their child. Nursery is frequently the parents' first continued experience in presenting to the world outside the family what they, as parents, have done for the child. Obviously preschoolers do not yet have the abilities to develop a strong identity separate from the parents. Because this age group is still so dependent and requires so much of the mother's time and energy, it is no wonder that she takes every comment about her child personally.

A certain amount of this identification of mother and child is not only normal but necessary, yet nursery teachers often see this in its exaggerated form. To use a term from psychoanalytic theory, mothers who are aware that their child is having difficulty come to the conference with their "defenses up." A *defense* is the characteristic way of dealing with anxiety; it involves unconscious measures adopted by an individual to protect himself against painful feelings or occurrences. These may be constructive or destructive to a person's total functioning.

It has been my observation that the two defenses most frequently encountered in anxious mothers of young children are *projection* and *denial.* In projection, the person attributes his own feelings and attitudes to other persons or situations because he is unable to admit them to himself. Have you ever tried to discuss your concerns with a mother who kept insisting that if James was resistant to routines it was because the teacher wasn't handling him right? Denial, another defense, is the refusal to acknowledge intellectually or emotionally feelings and events because they are highly threatening in some way. For example: It is obvious from a mother's description that Susie is keeping the household in a turmoil with her tantrums, by her demands for her father's attention and by refusing to stay in bed at night. The mother will say all this and in the next breath conclude, in a very calm tone, that she really doesn't have any difficulties with Susie big enough to worry about, and she guesses her daughter is just an active child.

In both instances the mothers are defending themselves from the knowledge that somewhere along the line they haven't done the best possible job as parents; or, equally often, that they do not know what to do now. There may be many reasons, some of them unavoidable, for the child's behavior. But it still boils down to the fact that the mother feels criticized.

It is not necessary for a teacher to deal with all the intricacies of defense mechanisms and certainly not within her role to comment on them directly to the parent. It is important that she be able to recognize the reasons for certain kinds of behavior in parents and understand the causes, so that she does not respond in what would otherwise be a natural argumentative manner, thereby limiting her usefulness to the child. If a parent finds it emotionally necessary to deny that her child has difficulty, then all the earnest and often angry teacher will do with a more detailed description of atrocities is to make the mother even more anxious, thereby increasing her need to deny. There are ways of handling these defenses.

It is important to remember that from their own past parents bring with them to the conference experiences, often consciously forgotten, with schools and teachers. That is to say, they transfer to the relationship with their child's teacher certain expectations, causes for which are not always to be found in the current situation. Again, it will be helpful to borrow two terms from psychoanalytic theory. The first is *transference,* the displacement into the current situation of emotions, behavior and attitudes whose origins are in earlier experiences and relatively independent of current reality. The now classic example of this is the man who chooses a wife because she reminds him of his mother, thereby transferring a parent-child relationship to marriage. Parents usually see teachers as persons of authority and the ways in which they relate are influenced by whether their past experiences with authority figures were ~~constructive~~ or unpleasant. Parents transfer many mixed feelings to a conference. The important thing is for teachers to learn to recognize the roots of these feelings, while at the same time accepting the parent's sincere desire to co-operate and help his child.

Some knowledge of what parents are like inside, and why, is certainly a necessary aspect of planning. Such understanding helps to make decisions on how to say what more easily, to bring about the desired results. Keep in mind that teachers also have defenses and make transferences. Have you ever heard a teacher come out of a conference saying, "Mrs. Smith just makes me so mad – I tried to tell her how she could make mealtime pleasanter for Sam and the whole family, but she just seems to have a chip on her shoulder." In this case, the understandably frustrated teacher has gone beyond the point of relating to Mrs. Smith as a confused and worried person who needs help and is simply angry at the mother's antagonism. That is, the teacher is responding to the way in which the mother responds to her.

This phenomenon is known as *countertransference,* that is responses determined by the type of transference from another person, which occur in the form of emotions, behavior and attitudes whose origins are in earlier experience relatively independent of current reality. It is helpful to keep in mind that, just as parents bring to us their past experiences with teachers, we teachers carry within ourselves responses to past experiences with our own parents and families, and that these influence our current relationships.

The first step to successful consultation with parents is to organize what you know about the child and to take account of yourself and your abilities and limitations, as well as those of the parent you are to see.

Methods

What is it that actually happens when you interview? Why does a parent listen to you, accept or reject what you have to say, argue or co-operate? The way in which parents and teachers are able to work together depends on the nature of their *relationship.* This word indicates a mutual experience resulting from direct interaction of two or more people in which feelings, attitudes and ideas are shared and in which, to some extent, each person influences the other in these matters. All the points so far discussed are major ingredients of any relationship. It is the aim of the teacher to build a positive relationship with a parent, to achieve specific goals for the child. There are ways to facilitate this, First, if a conference is a mutual exchange of information, then the teacher is a collaborator, not a questioner. The expectation of parent participation and responsibility, so far as is reasonable, should be set from the beginning. It is important to learn to be a creative listener. In so doing we can hear what the parent is telling us explicitly, as well as what may be behind what he is saying, that is, the implicit content – how he is feeling, which is conveyed by gestures, mannerisms and general appearances. One approach is to ask parents to tell you, rather than your telling them or beginning by giving advice. Comments should be designed to help parents think through situations for themselves. For instance, instead of beginning by saying that you asked to see the parent because Johnny's hitting presents a problem, you might say, "I wonder if you have any idea why I asked to talk with you." Often if the difficulty is immediately reiterated to the parent, the latter begins to feel criticized – that she is a bad mother or has failed her child – and the defenses go up.

There are two methods, *exploration* and *support* that seem appropriate and helpful for parent-teacher conferences. Having a method suggests a systematic and deliberate way of doing something. These two are separated only for the purpose of presentation; certainly they are often used in the same interview if the teacher feels that this is indicated.

Exploration is defined as "a process by which the teacher, using various techniques, obtains information relative to the child's developmental, medical, emotional history and his current family situation as it affects the preschool experience." Louis Lehrman has made the helpful distinction between *horizontal* and *vertical* investigation. The former aims at establishing behavior patterns and total aspects of the life situation. The latter implies a deeper understanding of the causal dynamics behind these. It is the horizontal type of exploration that lies within the realm of parent-teacher conferences. While it is important for teachers to understand the nature of the feeling parents bring, it is not always necessary to comment on them. Exploration should help to give some idea as to what the parent sees as the problem, for comparison with how the teacher sees the situation. This helps you assess the degree of the parent's understanding and gives clues as to your next goals.

The supportive method differs from exploration. It is "a process in which the teacher, by means of various techniques, lends her strength and knowledge to reinforce and encourage the parent's existing strengths so that abilities of the latter are mobilized and further breakdown is prevented." No matter how disturbed a parent-child relationship, the parent somewhere within himself always wants very much to help the child and is angry with herself because she does not seem able to do so. The teacher looks for and attempts to encourage this strength. It may be done simply by verifying a mother's knowledge, thereby giving her the needed courage to act on her convictions. In talking with the parent, the teacher can perhaps help her to accept the things her child does well and thereby give balance to the parent's perception of the bothersome child. As with exploration, the teacher must proceed with sensitive discrimination, assessing when a mother can tolerate further questions, how much support is realistic in this particular situation, and how able the parent is at this time to recognize the better qualities of her child.

There are other helpful factors. It is important not to do too much too fast. The first conference should help parent and teacher get acquainted and establish a relationship of mutual confidence. Whatever information a parent presents at whatever time must be treated with confidence. It is often difficult for a parent to relax until the teacher has defined her role, explained the purpose of the conference and assured the mother that whatever she says will be for their use only. If it is necessary to pass on any information given in confidence, one must be sure to get the parent's permission.

Everyone who has never interviewed, particularly the novice, is eager to know "just how." Techniques often elude definition because they are so much the result of the opportunities of the situation, combined with sensitivity, skill and knowledge. Most people who interview soon develop their own style, a by-product not only of knowledge but also of individual personality. One of the most important aspects of technique is the interviewer's attitude toward the parent as a person. as well as toward what is said. As a professional, one should aim to be objective, neutral and uncritical. Facial expressions and manners often belie our thoughts and feelings as well as those of the parent.

It is most important to try always to begin where the parent is. For example, one parent may be warm and giving but really lacking in knowledge about child development, making the inconsistent behavior of her four-year-old quite distressing to her. Another parent may know exactly what to expect but be totally unable to integrate this knowledge constructively in the actual handling of her child.

Techniques

We have already mentioned the technique of *enlisting the parents' help* and getting them to tell you rather than your telling them. In general, this is best accomplished by such nondirective questions as, "I wonder if you could tell me just a little more about that." Another technique that is often necessary in exploration and that can help keep a conference within its defined scope is *focusing*. This means simply to select a point for attention. It is usually achieved by more directive questions, comments or suggestions, such as, "You said something earlier that I was interested in – I wonder if we could go back to that for a minute." One technique especially helpful in building a positive relationship is that of *relating your comments to the feelings inherent in what the mother is saying,* rather than to the facts. For example, when a mother is telling you about the havoc of putting Joan to bed, this is no time to lecture on techniques of discipline. A comment on the mother's feelings such as, "You must get pretty exasperated at times," will let her know that you understand her as well as the child. One word of caution about this technique: It is best to be pretty sure that your reflection is accurate – when in doubt, don't comment. *Universalization* is a technique that can be quite supportive. This is a way of indicating to the parent that she is not the only one who has ever had this problem. You might say, "This is a difficulty parents traditionally have with their three-year-olds." *Suggestion* is a technique that should be used sparingly. Experience proves that it is almost always useless to give advice when it is not requested. The most successful way by far is to help the parents, through encouraging their thinking, to discover the solution themselves. The need for *clarification* is indicated when a parent is distorting reality or obviously confused on some point. For instance, I recently saw a mother whose little girl had had two temper tantrums at school. The teacher mentioned this and no more to the mother, who immediately assumed that Mazie was a behavior problem and I had asked to see her because the child was going to be terminated. A parent may need *reassurance,* if he seems unrealistically concerned about something that is quite normal. Finally, one should *be prepared to give information in such a way that the parent can accept and use it.* These eight techniques of enlisting parents' help, focusing, relating to the parents' feelings, universalization, suggestion, clarification, reassurance and giving information are intended as guides to help you develop your own style of consultation. They should be used only when you are fairly sure that to do so is realistic.

Comments

In summary, I should like to suggest how conferences can be improved. First, see your director or supervisor for help in preparation, whenever possible. The objectivity of a third person not directly involved with either child or parent can be most helpful in clarifying and correcting one's thinking. Second, record your conferences. Choice of style depends upon your school's requirements and individual preferences, but write something down. It is always surprising how much one forgets. There is also a growing tendency to use consultants from other professions, both for evaluating children's disturbances and for help with interviewing. Third, survey the available literature and take a course if your training has been sparse in the area of consultation. Don't be shy about saying No if you honestly feel that at this time you could not be helpful to a parent in a conference. If a parent requires help that the school cannot offer, limit your contacts with the parent and help refer him or her to an appropriate agency. A familiarity with community resources is essential.

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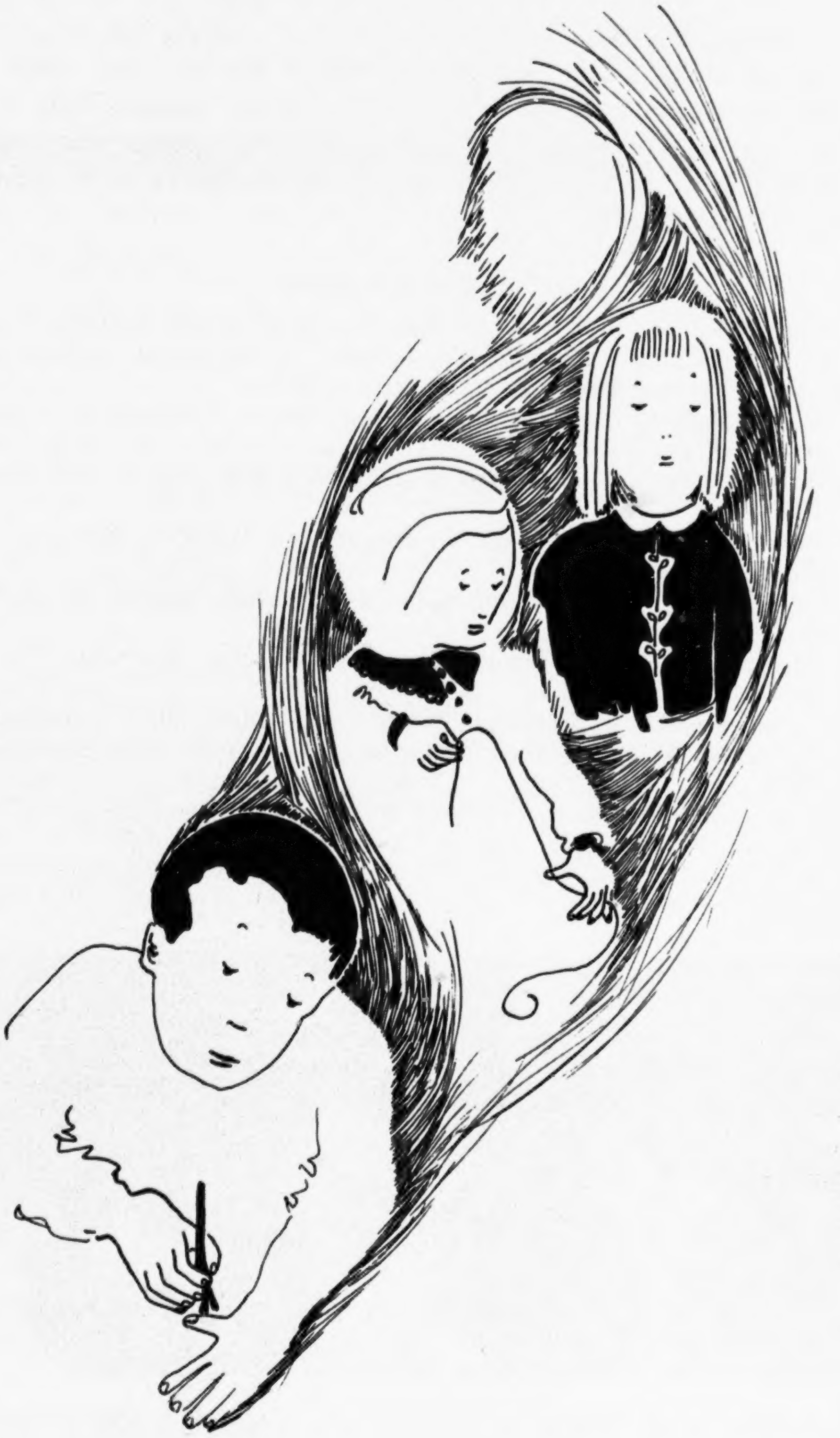
THE FACULTY – MEETS TO DISCUSS PUPIL PROBLEMS AND PERFORMANCE



PART 7

Elementary School Guidance Programs in Practice

Programs of elementary school guidance are discussed by four authors in this section of the book. William H. McCreary and Gerald Miller of the Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services, California State Department of Education, are first to discuss this topic. They state that the number of elementary school counselors employed in the California elementary schools has increased noticeably in recent years. They studied many facets of the elementary school counselors preparation, roles and functions. All state departments of guidance and personnel services could be of greater assistance to school systems within each state if similar research were conducted.

An approach to vocational guidance at the elementary school level has been described by Allen P. Zak of the Chicago Public Schools. He describes an experimental vocational guidance program involving fifty-four eighth-grade students at the William J. Onahan elementary school. The general objective of the program was to expose the students to an intensive six-week experience of vocational alternatives integrating local community reso[illegible] and occupational information data. In general, it was concluded that such a program made high school more meaningful and that high school programming became more purposeful for both student and parent.

Neal F. Simeon discusses a unique guidance program for the over-age elementary school pupil. The program was proposed by Dr. Benjamin C. Willis, at that time, Superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, to see what could be done to help the oldest pupils in elementary schools raise their sights and improve themselves so they would enter night school and eventually graduate. Out of this project grew the concept of Vocational Guidance and Education Centers. While this program does not meet all the needs of all the children, it is the consensus of those included in the project that it fills an important gap in the Chicago system of education. Programs similar to the one in operation in Chicago could be established in other communities. Such programs could salvage children who had seemed doomed to join the ranks of out-of-school, out-of-work youths. In the long run, Simeon concludes ". . . Every dollar spent on the education of each child will substantially reduce the cost of sheltering the non-contributor of society."

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELORS IN CALIFORNIA

William H. McCreary, Gerald Miller

Awareness on the part of school officials and boards of education of the need for better guidance services in elementary schools has led to a notable increase in the number of elementary school counselors employed in California schools in recent years. In contrast to school psychologists, school social workers, and child welfare and attendance supervisors, who generally work out of district or county offices, these counselors are assigned to schools as members of the principal's staff.

The present study was undertaken to ascertain the number, location, experience and functions of these elementary school counselors. Other pupil personnel workers were purposely excluded from the survey in order to focus the effort on the relatively new and less well-defined position of counselor.

Procedures

The Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services, California State Department of Education undertook the study in cooperation with the California Counseling and Guidance Association and the committee on guidance of the California Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Each association appointed a committee of three members to

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work with the staff of the bureau in planning and carrying out the study. The goals of the study were as follows:

A. To ascertain the number, school location, academic preparation and experience, and functions and duties of elementary school counselors in California.

B. To secure opinions on the effectiveness of counselors' work and suggestions on desirable modifications in their functions and duties.

C. To secure information on the academic preparation and personal qualifications thought to be desirable for such counselors.

D. To publish a report of the findings of the study.

In November, 1963, the Bureau addressed a letter to superintendents of the 1,334 school districts maintaining elementary schools, asking whether the districts employed elementary school counselors "by that title" and, if so, requesting the names of such counselors, the names of the schools in which they worked, and the names of the school principals. The names of 230 counselors and 262 principals representing 57 school districts were reported. Responses from superintendents approached 100 per cent.

One questionnaire was prepared for counselors, a slightly modified version was prepared for principals, and a third for teachers. Questionnaires were then mailed to the counselors and the principals. Principals were asked to fill out their own questionnaires and also to select two or three representative teachers in their buildings to complete the teacher's questionnaire.

One hundred and seventy-five elementary counselors in 50 school districts, or 76 per cent, returned questionnaires. Thirty-one per cent of the counselors responding were from two districts. One hundred and eighteen principals in 51 school districts, or 45 per cent, returned questionnaires. Three hundred and twelve teachers in 43 school districts returned questionnaires.

The number of children in the reporting schools was 133,125 or five per cent of all pupils in grades K-8 in the state.

Findings

A. *Supervision*

From responses of 175 counselors, it is evident that the predominant practice is to place the elementary school counselor – like his high school counterpart – directly under the supervision of the principals;

145 are so placed. Thirty counselors, although school-based, report that they work under the direction of other personnel.

B. *Grades Served*

Forty-four per cent of the counselors serve in intermediate schools, grades 7-8; 33 per cent serve grades K-8; the remainder serve other grade combinations.

C. *Credentials*

In addition to a basic teaching credential, 86 per cent of the counselors hold the pupil personnel services credential and 19 per cent hold an administration or supervision credential.

D. *Positions Held*

Sixty-seven per cent of the counselors have taught for an average of 10 years and have counseled for an average of five years. Five per cent have held administrative positions for an average of three years.

E. *Functions*

The functions of elementary school counselors in order of their importance, as judged by the principals and the counselors, are shown in TABLE 1. These functions were listed on the questionnaire *in random order* and a short description of each was included as a guide to the rater. (Space on the questionnaire was provided for writing in "other functions," but because an insignificant number of responses was obtained, they were not included in the computations.)

F. *Distribution of Working Time*

Counselors were asked what per cent of their time was spent in working with pupils, teachers, administrators, parents, and others. Their responses indicated the following distribution.

Working with:	*Per Cent of Time*
Pupils	50
Teachers	17
Administrators	10
Parents	12
Others (probation, welfare, medical, etc.)	11

No significant differences were found in the distribution of working time reported by counselors employed in K-8, K-6, and 7-8 schools.

G. *Teacher Responses*

In order to relate the responses of principals and counselors concerning the functions of elementary school counselors to the opinions of teachers about those functions, the teachers were asked the question, "What kinds of services have you received from the counselor?" (Of the 312 teachers who responded, 50 per cent were from three school districts.)

1. Services Received by Teachers.

	Responses	
	Number	*Per Cent*[*]
Individual testing of pupils	202	65
Individual counseling with pupils	152	49
Helping with classroom problems	116	37
Participating in parent conferences	84	27
Administering group tests	58	19
Interpreting and evaluating test results	50	16
Teacher-counselor conferences	43	14
Taking disciplinary action with pupils	32	10

[*] Some teachers checked more than one item.

Counselors also help teachers by organizing student-body activities, giving remedial instruction, taking over classes in teacher's absence, obtaining helpful information about pupils, group counseling, helping with attendance problems and home calls.

2. Additional Kinds of Desired Services.

Teachers also were asked, "What kinds of services would you like to receive that are not now being given?" For the most part, teachers did not identify any new services, but expressed the need for additional or increased services of the types listed in the preceding item.

3. Teachers' Rating of Counseling Services.

Teachers were asked to comment on the effectiveness of counseling services. Their ratings follow.

	Number	*Per Cent*
Excellent or very effective	149	48
Adequate or effective	76	24
Inadequate	19	6
No response	68	22
Total	312	100

H. *Important Competencies*

Principals and counselors were asked "What skills and competencies should the elementary school counselor possess?" and "What personality characteristics should the elementary school counselor have?"

The majority of the principals and counselors indicated that proficiency in test administration and interpretation and proficiency in counseling techniques are the most significant competencies expected of elementary counselors. The ideal counselor is seen as one having skill in human relations, able to establish rapport with school staff and with children. He must be a friendly warm person who likes children and people and who is able to communicate well. He should have a good sense of humor and be understanding, empathic and accepting. Other important personality traits include maturity, patience, and the ability to listen.

Table 1

Functions of the Elementary Counselor

Administrator's Rank Order of Importance	*Counselor's Rank Order of Importance*	*Counselor's Actual Time in Rank Order*
Counseling	Counseling	Counseling
Teacher Consultation	Teacher Consultation	Teacher Consultation
Parent Consultation	Parent Consultation	Testing Program
Testing Program	Testing Program	Parent Consultation
Community and District Referrals	Administrative (guidance program)	Record Keeping–Clerical
Administrative (guidance program)	Community and District Referrals	Administrative (guidance program)
Research Studies	Research Studies	Community and District Referrals
Record Keeping–Clerical	Record Keeping–Clerical	Research Studies

I. *Ideal Program*

When principals and counselors were asked to suggest an ideal counseling program at the district and school level, diverse responses were received, but certain "essential" elements were described by substantial numbers of respondents.

1. District coordinators of pupil personal services should be employed to direct and coordinate the program and give technical supervision to staff members in the central office and in the schools.

2. Counselors should be assigned to school staffs and should work under the direct supervision of principals.

3. Other pupil personnel specialists such as school psychologists, child welfare and attendance supervisors, and school social workers also should be available to the schools.

4. Coordination should be provided with other special services and programs such as remedial instruction, speech therapy, classes for mentally retarded pupils, etc.

5. Suggested staffing patterns ranged from one elementary school counselor for every school of 500-600 pupils to one counselor for every two schools of that approximate size or one to 1,200 pupils.

J. *Weaknesses*

The majority of responses to the question concerning weaknesses of current programs related to the same aspects of guidance programs as were listed in the ideal program. For example, an adequate counselor-pupil ratio was indicated as necessary to an ideal program, whereas an insufficient counseling staff was most frequently listed by both groups as the major weakness in present programs. Another weakness pointed out by 27 per cent of the 175 counselors was a lack of communication among the pupil personnel workers. A significant number of counselors also noted a lack of communication with administrators.

K. *Counselors' Preparation*

Suggesting the educational background that elementary counselors should have, principals and counselors agreed that counselors should hold the pupil personnel credential, and that – as desirable – they do graduate work to the master's level.

They recommended work experience, including teaching, as a prerequisite to counseling. Many respondents preferred that the teaching experience be with the same age group as the one to be counseled. They also recommended non-teaching experience both related to children, and suggested that counseling experiences should be made available to teachers preparing for counseling positions.

Suggestions made by counselors for improving college preparation of elementary school counselors included the improvement of supervised field experience, making provision in counselor training for a program similar to student teaching, and making the content of courses more practical for this level.

L. *Materials and Facilities*

Materials and facilities considered essential to the counselor included a private office with telephone; availability of testing materials; adequate storage space for testing materials, supplies, and records; a professional resource library including vocational guidance information; and availability of cumulative records.

Discussion

Principals and counselors in these California schools are in substantial agreement as to the order of importance of the functions of elementary school counselors, according to their responses. Undoubtedly, this is the major finding of the survey. School administrators and counselors agree on what the counselors should be doing. From this basic understanding can come improvements, extensions, and innovations in guidance services in elementary schools.

A review of the ratings of functions in terms of their importance and in terms of the time devoted to them by counselors indicates problems that principals and counselors could jointly study and resolve. For example, how could more time be provided for parent consultation, which rates ahead of test administration in significance but receives less of the counselor's time? Another area for potential improvement is that of record keeping — clerical work which both principals and counselors rated as least important in the list of functions, but on which the average counselor spends more time than on administering the guidance program, arranging for community and intradistrict referrals of pupils, and conducting research studies.

How to improve communications within the pupil personnel staff, between principals and counselors, and between teachers and counselors is likewise suggested as an area deserving attention.

Teachers view the services provided by elementary school counselors as very effective. When asked how the services might be improved, they did not name any new services, but rather requested an increase in the services already being provided. (This was an open-ended question; a checklist might have elicited requests for new types of service.) Both teachers and counselors reported functions rendered by counselors that are inconsistent with most concepts of their proper role. Counselors in some of these schools were called upon to handle disciplinary cases, serve as teachers in the absence of regular teachers, and perform administrative duties unrelated to the guidance program.

Although both principals and counselors believed that elementary school counselors should have graduate training to the master's degree, relatively few counselors pointed out the urgent need for specialized college courses for elementary school guidance personnel.

The study did produce a consensus on the role and functions of elementary school counselors but it is clear that their functions and duties overlap those performed by other pupil personnel workers, such as school psychometrists and psychologist and school social workers. A unique role of the counselor has not been clearly established as yet. This conclusion can be supported by noting the kinds of service teachers reported they received from counselors. The majority of teachers, for example, reported they received individual testing services from counselors; this is a major role of psychologists as well.

We may hypothesize that the difference in roles at present is mainly a difference of degree rather than in kind. The counselor as a member of a school staff rather than of a district or county office staff probably contacts more pupils and spends more time in a counseling relationship with them than do other pupil personnel workers. However, the survey did not secure data by which to verify that assumption.

Finally, all three groups – principals, counselors, and teachers – recognizing both the strengths and the weaknesses of present programs, voiced the hope that in the future more counseling services could be provided to elementary schools.

Such questions as type of personnel, and qualifications along with educational viewpoint of the school faculty, for example, would bring together sound theory and effective practice.

Outcomes

On the assumption that the type of effort just described can reflect the points of view held by representatives of the interdisciplinary groups as well as various educational factions, it is conceivable that a joint position statement might result from their cooperative efforts. Presumably such a statement could place elementary school guidance in the proper perspective with respect to not only the guidance movement in general but also to behavioral science theory and current educational philosophy. One portion of such a national policy statement might examine and describe the unique aspects of guidance in the elementary school as compared to guidance at the secondary school level, for example. This might bring to light such differential factors as pupil characteristics, nature of the school program, the role of the curriculum, the function of staff members, and goals to be sought at various educational levels. Another important feature of a cooperative statement should certainly be inclusion of the fundamental elements or component functions to be included in a total plan of elementary school guidance activity. This material might examine the various contributions to be provided by the administrator, the classroom teacher, and the specialist, indicating the distinctive roles and the inter-relationships necessary for joint development of the services. A dimension of this part of such a policy statement might include the place of identification, classification, and treatment of pupil behavior factors. Perhaps other emphases could deal with suggestive organizational designs and the type of personnel necessary to carry out the various functions. Finally, any national policy statement at this time should certainly include a listing of unresolved issues which now appear to be facing the profession. Such a presentation would certainly be a first step in tackling these points of disagreement among those responsible for the advancement of elementary school guidance work.

It is to be hoped that a position statement resulting from the cooperative efforts of educators, guidance workers, psychologists, social workers, and others would further set the stage for continued research and further development in the years to come. This phase of the position statement might well become a set of guidelines for future progress with a number of areas coming under scrutiny. Pointed recommendations as to further studies with respect to field practices or model program activity would be helpful here. Similarly, future study groups would be helped by reference to future research goals both with respect to specific techniques and with respect to total program development. The whole area of training programs and their composition, quality, and character, should also be examined with an eye to the future. Certainly suggestions ought to be made for the evaluation of elementary guidance activities, both individual procedures as well as total program designs. As a final contribution for national effort, a position statement should be explicit as to the leadership responsibility and the specific next steps that might well be taken. The designation of possible leadership groups and the suggestion of a sequence of activity could conceivably be of great help to future groups responsible for the continued improvement of guidance in the elementary school.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: COMMUNITY-CENTERED PROGRAM SPURS STUDENT INTEREST

ALLEN P. ZAK

The purpose of this article is to describe an experimental vocational guidance program involving 54 eighth-grade students of the William J. Onahan elementary school. The general objective of the program was to expose the students to an intensive six-week experience in vocational alternatives integrating local community resources and occupational information data.

The specific objectives of the program were: 1) to orient the students occupationally; 2) to enable students to relate to occupations in terms of their abilities, limitations, aptitudes, and interests; 3) to enable students to acquire a basic understanding of the requirements necessary for entrance into, and participation in, a specific occupation; 4) to coordinate community agencies with the work of the school.

It is generally understood that few students at the age of thirteen or fourteen really have a clear idea of what they want to do after graduation from high school or college. Even those who do know find that their likes and dislikes change as they do more reading, studying, listening, and thinking. Frequently, the career they choose in the eighth grade no longer interests them by the time they finish high school. This is no reason not to begin planning ahead – to take the time at least to consider various occupational fields and the requirements necessary for entering into them, and to consider what high school courses would prove most advantageous in preparation for future vocational choices.

Occupational Information More than Facts

Occupational information should be thought of as a student's feeling about an occupation as a result of his contact with it – not merely as a collection of occupational facts and job market data. The task of the elementary school vocational guidance program is twofold: 1) to provide the student with an objective self-image (an understanding of his talents, his strengths, his interests, and the necessary means of developing his individual potential); 2) to provide the student with personal experiences within his specific field of interest.

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The goals of the first week of the program were to provide each student with the opportunity for self-appraisal, and to compile and evaluate a list of available local community resources. The procedures employed in self-analysis were as follows:

1. The administration of the *California Test of Personality*, Series E.
2. The administration of the *Chicago Public Schools Interest Inventory* (C. St. Ill.).
3. Teacher analysis of student autobiographies.
4. Teacher-pupil analysis of standardized test scores, cumulative report card grades, and general academic performance.
5. Completion by the students of the following Job Questionnaire.[1]

What is the name of the job and profession?
What does the worker do?
What are the conditions under which he works?
What education is needed to obtain this job?
What are pay deductions?
What skills are required?
Is the work interesting to the worker?
What are the job requirements?
Are there job opportunities to get ahead?
What are they?
How does the job affect family life?
How is the job obtained?

The interpretation of the information was done indirectly in group discussions and directly in individual conferences held during the regular guidance period or at times convenient to both the students and the teacher.

Some Pupils Have Unrealistic Ambitions

An interesting aspect of this phase of the program was the problem of dealing with students who entertained ambitions not in tune with their manifest abilities and achievement. It should be noted that this involved a relatively small number of students. The approach to these students consisted of a general class discussion stressing the importance of choice of occupation in relation to abilities, interests, and aptitudes, and pointing out that education continues after high school, not only in the form of college, but also in other types of vocational training schools.

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[1] Chicago Board of Education Group Guidance for Upper Elementary Grades, p. 109.

In appropriate cases, there would be a tactful discussion during individual conferences relative to other possible professional choices, perhaps related to the area of the first choice. Finally students were given opportunities to investigate literature about other occupations. The student was neither encouraged nor discouraged in his choice. The primary motivation was to compile data on various courses of action which are open to the student and so to find vocational opportunities which meet his interests as well as his abilities. The culminating activity of this phase of the program was a student composition, "An Evaluation of Myself and My Chosen Field of Interest."

Pupils Select Community Resources

The preliminary step in the compilation of local community resources was to establish criteria for an objective evaluation of the selected resources. The following criteria evolved after group discussion: 1) *Accessibility*: What resources are available within the community? 2) *Practicability*: Is the resource near enough to visit without taking too much time from the rest of the educational program? 3) *Suitability*: Will the resource broaden our perspective in our field of interest?

A survey was conducted to categorize the students' vocational interests into general vocational fields. The results showed that most fell into four large fields: teaching; medicine and allied fields; science and engineering; and secretarial and general office. There were a few students who made a choice outside these four areas.

A committee was selected from each of the major vocational categories and delegated the task of developing and evaluating a list of local community resources. The following resource institutions were selected: Chicago Teachers College North; Resurrection Hospital; Aetna Insurance Company; Illinois Institute of Technology.[2]

Students Discuss Occupational Areas

It was agreed that one week, or a total of three class sessions, would be devoted to each of the four major vocational categories previously mentioned. Two class sessions would be spent orienting the students to the vocation and the resource, and one afternoon for visitation. All students were expected to participate in the general class preparation and discussion. Time was provided during each period for the pursuit of individual interests; however, the students were expected to do outside reading whenever necessary.

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[2] A problem arose in trying to provide a local resource for those students interested in the fields of science and engineering. After deliberation it was decided to go outside the community boundaries and contact the Illinois Institute of Technology. Because of the traveling time involved, it was decided to invite a representative from the college to speak to the class.

Permission for visitation of the resources was obtained via telephone conversations. A timetable for the visitations was established and consent secured from the proper authorities. Parents, notified by letter of intent and objectives of the program, expressed great interest and enthusiasm for the program. Many offered transportation facilities and accompanied the group on the trips.

Group Visits CTC North

The field trip to Chicago Teachers College North proved to be enlightening to both parents and students. It provided an opportunity for both groups to acquaint themselves with the excellent facilities and program of a college located within the community. The guided tour and discussions served to familiarize the students with the academic and personal requirements for college admission, for being a teacher in the Chicago system, and for teaching in general. The discussions also focused on what courses to stress in high school and on what the college curriculum for teacher preparation entailed. The trip definitely reinforced the students' vocational choice and greatly impressed the parents.

The director of personnel and a registered nurse guided the students and parents on their tour of Resurrection Hospital. The thoroughness of the tour provided each visitor with a comprehensive portrait of what it takes to run a hospital. The group was divided, providing both parents and students an equal opportunity to witness the job tasks being performed. The group was encouraged to ask questions of both the guides and the personnel of various departments. A group discussion terminated the visit.

Our trip to the Aetna Insurance Company started with a question-answer session conducted by the personnel manager. Students were given ample opportunity to inquire about the necessary qualifications and preparation for the many job opportunities within the office field. A tour of the plant, group interviews with secretaries and personnel from each department, coupled with demonstrations of the various machinery used in each phase of office work provided the group with a complete picture of the many opportunities available within this vocational field.

The Illinois Institute of Technology very obligingly agreed to send an admissions counselor to speak to the group. His lecture considered college entrance and curriculum requirements for science and engineering students, an excellent approach to general high school programing for college preparation, a down-to-earth approach to academic achievement, and a complete portrait of what a college admissions counselor expects of high school graduates.

Pupil Evaluation Indicates Interest

The students' evaluation of the program, conducted during the final week of the program, brought to light the following salient considerations:

1. The program should be extended over a longer period of time and incorporate more guest speakers and resources outside the local community.
2. The studies of the various occupations should be greater in depth. More occupations and many aspects of any given occupation should be considered. (Materials received since the termination of the program have greatly facilitated this phase of the program.)
3. Greater benefit is derived from the sharing of information in class discussion than from individual isolated research.
4. The program was very beneficial and should be continued.

The success of the school guidance program is tempered in many ways by the relationships that exist between the school and its personnel and the community of which the school is a part. Undeniably, pupils from all walks of life could benefit from contacts with successful adults, from direct observation of the many facets of life and work of the community, and from direct participation in some of these activities. The responsibility of the elementary school vocational guidance program is to equip the student with an objective self-image and to provide personal experiences within his specific field of interest.

A program to satisfy these needs would have to provide the student with a basic understanding of his personality as well as a working knowledge of scores on standardized tests and general academic achievement. It would incorporate a survey of available resources and a categorization of student vocational interests. It would require student committees to survey the community for resources and to gather available supplemental materials. It would require time and planning to realize the full potential of all that is available in materials and resources.

Many Materials Available for Study

The implications of such a project for teachers in their dual roles as teachers and guidance counselors are multiple. The vast, virtually untapped reservoir of community resources and supplemental materials applicable to vocational guidance programs at the elementary level is staggering. The personnel of companies, colleges, and private institutions contacted in this program were more than cooperative — they were genuinely enthusiastic!

The intense interest manifested by the students toward information about the preparation and requirements for their selected vocational field of interest seems to indicate that perhaps more time should be expended at the elementary level in this area of guidance. It could eliminate many unnecessary program changes at the high school level.

Program Makes High School Meaningful

Here, too, is a splendid opportunity to help the multi-talented gifted child set his course early in life. This would be especially advantageous in those career choices involving a great deal of time and preparation. Also, high school would become more meaningful to the potential dropout if, with intelligent guidance, he could identify a realistic vocational interest early in his school career and plan his program to fulfill the necessary requirements.

As a result of this project, high school programing became more purposeful for both the student and the parent. Equipped with an objective self-image and a working knowledge of various occupational fields and their requirements, the students became more discriminating in their choices and more objective in their orientation. The students also came to realize something of the rewards of learning and to see that these rewards can be both spiritual and material.

Truly, the opportunities for the utilization of community resources, like the opportunities for all kinds of enrichment, are limited only by the time available for capitalizing on them.

CHICAGO'S VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND EDUCATION CENTERS: A PROGRAM FOR OVER-AGE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL YOUTH

Neal F. Simeon

Of the many problems which large city school systems face, that of helping underachievers and potential drop-outs poses one of the greatest challenges. The Chicago Public Schools have approached the problem in a manner which has some unique features.

To begin with, a city-wide survey conducted in 1961 revealed that there were approximately 26,000 youths in our elementary schools who were fourteen years of age or older and who had not yet been graduated. This represented better than seven per cent of the elementary school population.

Another fact revealed by the survey was that about 8,000 of the total were fifteen years of age and older. Children in this group caused particular concern because they were fast approaching their sixteenth year, when they might legally drop out of school if something were not done to help meet their particular needs.

The problems of these potential dropouts present a pattern familiar indeed to those who have had experience with such a group. Common characteristics include low achievement, limited horizons, attendance problems, late entry into first grade, home problems, economic problems, and discouragement. Many saw graduation from high school as a very remote possibility.

How Special Program Was Developed

Armed with these facts and other pertinent information, Dr. Benjamin C. Willis, general superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, proposed that a program be developed to help these youths. Particular emphasis would be placed on the oldest, to see what could be done to help them improve, raise their sights, enter high school, and eventually graduate.

Out of this grew the concept of the Vocational Guidance and Education Centers. Discussion of the problem with the curriculum department, special education department, and vocational education department, and utilization of the resources of the central office with respect

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to data and the counsel of appropriate administrators resulted in formulation of a plan for over-age youths in Chicago elementary schools.

The title of the centers to be established suggests the kind of program which was developed. It was concluded that most of the youth with whom we would work would generally be classified as employment-bound rather than college-bound. It would be well to emphasize at this point that it was *not* assumed that no college-bound students would be in the group, Rather, the term "vocational guidance" would embrace the total range of career planning and preparation necessary to achieve one's goals.

Importance of Using Separate Facilities

The term "education" in the title is self-explanatory and embraces the improvement of achievement levels in the tool subjects so necessary for success in any endeavor. This is a fundamental principle in which we believe. Literacy and proficiency in tool subjects are musts and are the first goals to be achieved.

The term "center" is used to indicate that a separate physical facility would house the program. It was felt that every opportunity should be provided for the program, the students, and the faculty to develop to the fullest without the disadvantage of shared facilities, the "labeling" of pupils, and many other unfortunate things which happen to excellent programs when they are newly established in an existing facility with an ongoing program.

The specific recommendations which establish the Vocational Guidance and Education Centers follow. They were the outgrowth of the discussions mentioned above.

Stated Purpose of the Centers

It is proposed that schools be organized for over-age pupils assigned to elementary schools. Pupils aged fifteen or older in elementary schools within a reasonable distance would be transferred to the newly organized schools with the following purposes in view:

1. Completion of elementary education at an accelerated rate.
2. Vocational guidance, education, and supervised work experience for the development of marketable skills within a short enough period of time to constitute a realistic goal.
3. Guidance into continuing education on a secondary level, consistent with the vocational aims and the abilities of the pupil.

Each building facility used would accommodate a maximum of 300 pupils. Class sizes would be limited to 20 pupils.

At the beginning of each semester, pupils in contributing schools who are fifteen years of age or older would be transferred to the designated center where they would be given a guidance and educational program designed to further the three objectives stated above. In the case of pupils already in their 8A semester, it would be desirable to permit them to be graduated from their home schools unless an exceptional situation warranted transfer. Pupils who are fifteen or older entering by transfer from another attendance area would be assigned to the new school at the time of transfer.

Education Programs Fit Individual Needs

When pupils enter the new center, counselors will plan for appropriate physical and educational tests upon which to base guidance studies. The end result will be the development of an appropriate educational and vocational program for each pupil.

The amount of time that it will take to be graduated from the eighth grade will depend upon the educational and vocational plan as it relates to the achievement of the pupil. This individual plan will be a result of the joint decision of the school, the parent, and the particular child.

Graduation from his special center will be determined by that achievement which is necessary to go to the next step in the educational-vocational process, as determined by the plan for each pupil.

The program of studies includes basic tool subjects with added emphasis upon communication skills. This is an area in which these pupils are generally weakest. Without such improvement, chances of success in any endeavor are seriously hampered.

Emphasis on Small Classes, Guidance

The advantage of the small class size, individual special help from the teacher, many instructional aids, after-school reading clinics, an atmosphere of readiness for learning, motivation in terms of a goal within reach, and a new chance all combine to result in substantial gains in achievement on the part of many students as will be shown later.

The personnel of the center includes a principal, an assistant principal, a counselor, one physical education teacher, and one classroom teacher for each twenty pupils enrolled. Teachers are selected on the basis of interest in and experience with over-age youth, counseling training and/or experience, and work experience outside of teaching. All or some of the background described is desirable. Also, certain teachers are selected who have had special training in developmental reading, or mathematics, science, or social studies. In this way we bring to the subject area a team leader who can be most effective in spearheading curriculum development, devising special units of instruction, and coordinating with other subject areas.

Implementation of the above plan resulted in the opening of the first Vocational Guidance and Education center in February, 1962. The available Drake elementary school building, on the south side of Chicago, was used to house this first program.

Five Additional Centers Opened in September, 1962

It might be pointed out that this building was in many ways ideal, since it could comfortably house 300 pupils and had large rooms which could be used for almost any purpose, including modified facilities for some practical experiences. Practical experiences were not intended to provide vocational proficiency but rather to supplement the guidance program.

The results and experiences at the Drake vocational guidance and education center were gratifying and encouraging. The following semester, in September, 1962, five additional centers were opened. Another center opened in January, 1963, making a total of seven. Additional centers will be opened as soon as space becomes available through the continuing building program in progress in the Chicago Public Schools.

In establishing the centers, the selection of faculty became a first important step. Time for some in-service training was found before the opening of the school. The next important step was to contact the parents of the identified pupils to meet with them as a group. Here they had an opportunity to learn firsthand about the program and its advantages for the child. They could also ask any questions which might come to mind.

Keeping Parents Informed

In addition to learning about the mechanics of operation, program of education, advantages of small classes, and the selected faculty, the parents also learned that every child had the opportunity to progress at his own rate. As soon as he indicated that he was capable of entering high school, he would be so transferred, regardless of the grade level at which he entered the center. This, of course, implies that the guidance process will be fully implemented.

All parents of the children selected to attend the centers were eager for the new opportunity afforded their child. Many asked if their other sons and daughters could be transferred to the centers. This could not be done unless they met the standards set, which included (1) age fifteen or older, (2) lack of progress in elementary subjects, (3) classification other than educable-mentally handicapped (these pupils have a special ongoing program). Other factors would also have to be considered, such as more applicants being available than could be accommodated at the moment.

Upon the opening of the new centers in September, 1962, the pupils were transferred, records examined, and tests given immediatly. It was discovered that six pupils had been to summer schools and had made remarkable gains in reading, arthimetic, attitudes, and the like. The counselors then made thorough checks of these pupils, and, after conferences with the principal, parent, high school counselor, and the child, prepared the pupil for entrance into high school. Such recommendations were reviewed and approved by the district superintendent.

Nearly 1,500 Children in the Program

The seven centers established included an enrollment of 1,000 boys and 477 girls, totaling 1,477, for the semester ending June, 1963. This gives a ratio of approximately two-to-one for boys and girls. It is interesting to note the almost absolute preciseness of number of boys and girls in each of the seven centers, resulting in the overall two-to-one ratio. The median achievement level of the group as a whole was below sixth grade, while the median age was approximately fifteen years, six months.

It is also of interest to note the mobility of the group. Forty-two per cent of the children had attended four or more schools before attending the center. Six of the children had been in ten or more schools, and one child had attended *seventeen* different elementary schools.

Teachers have been enthusiastic and high in their praise of the attitudes and changes which occur in the student body. The common purpose, goals, motivation, and "another chance" make for a responsive student body.

Teachers Find Pupils Responsive

Teachers have found the pupils eager and ready to learn, as evidenced by some outstanding gains in achievement reported. The median gain in reading for the 1,477 pupils is 0.5+ for the five month period of one semester. This is a remarkable gain for the group when one examines the total background record and considers that this is a group of low achievers who have not shown such gains before. In addition, better than ten per cent of the group showed gains of from one to four years in this time. Scores on other tests paralleled reading gains.

Of considerable interest are the gains made by those who were graduated. Schools reported median gains of 1.5 years and better for graduates. All had full benefit of the guidance process as described earlier and were approved for graduation and enrollment in high school.

Plan Extensive Follow-up Program

As a matter of principle, it was agreed that all graduates from the centers would be followed until age twenty-one. This age was selected since it would permit follow-up through high school, job placement, or placement in another special age sixteen to twenty-one program for dropouts.

The home high school counselors and center counselors meet to discuss the pupils who are to enroll in the high school. It has been deemed advisable to keep the group together during the first semester until an adjustment is made. A home-room teacher is selected and a program made for the students, selecting teachers who understand and are sympathetic with the problems of the over-age child. Pupils are usually block-programmed during the first semester to provide for homogeneous grouping. In subsequent semesters, pupils are programmed as a part of the total school population, based upon individual achievement and counseling.

While the program is yet too young to have a long history, there were graduates who completed one semester in high school at the close of school in June, 1963. An examination of the grades received by these pupils at each five-week marking period revealed that most of them were making as good progress as the total school population.

It should be pointed out that these pupils were enrolled in regular classes and not remedial classes. Grades achieved were "Fair" and "Good," with a predominance of "Good" grades. Twenty-one per cent of one group of graduates were achieving excellent and superior grades.

Most Able to Go into High School

The experiences of the schools to date, after only one year of operation, lead to a prediction that a minimum of seventy-five per cent of those enrolled in the centers will be able to move into a high school program. This figure may approach ninety per cent as more experience is gained and time permits additional work with some not yet graduated.

It is estimated that from ten to thirty per cent will be so old or such low achievers that chances of their entrance into high school may be remote. Pupils entering the center at age sixteen have very little time to accomplish much if they are on the borderline as drop-outs. For these pupils and others there is being developed an occupationally-oriented program. Even at this writing, a Diversified Occupations program is being approved for use in one school on an experimental basis.

In addition, counselors are planning to utilize community resources to provide work experiences for the youth involved. Approximately ten per cent of the total group work part-time in jobs that they have secured. This may well be a base upon which to expand the work experience of the group described above. Individual and group guidance will play an important role in the program of these pupils.

Experiences in other experimental programs indicate that in such a program some students will be motivated to plan for continuing education on a full or part-time basis. Under such conditions, the counselors again play a role in helping to formulate an educational plan.

Several Other Advantages Apparent

Other advantages accrue from the development of these centers. The home elementary schools from which the pupils were transferred report that the removal of over-age, discouraged underachievers has created a new atmosphere for improved learning for regular students. The centers report that the bringing together of these pupils of high school age and treating them as high school youngsters, with a few activities approaching the high school level, has helped in the development of a school spirit and motivation, and has brought about the favorable results inherent in such a program.

It might be pointed out that this program is unique in that a positive effort is made to prevent dropping out of school. Most programs concerned with the drop-out have been directed toward the drop-out after he becomes one. The program of the Vocational Guidance and Education Centers is the first to deal exclusively with the potential drop-out at a level where it is preventive rather than remedial.

Remains Essentially an Elementary Program

While certain features of the program take on a high school aura, it must be remembered that this is an elementary school program for elementary school children. They must receive their elementary diploma before moving into the high school.

The secondary school programs open to the graduates of the centers have no limits. Pupils may enroll in any one of three types of secondary schools, the decisions based upon their individual educational plans and their abilities to profit from the program offered.

They may enroll in the general high school where they may prepare for specific pursuits at the college level after graduation from high school. They may enroll in a technical high school where the general purpose is to prepare students for entrance into the technical and engineering schools. Or they may enroll in a vocational high school where the general purpose is to provide occupational skills which will permit immediate job placement after graduation.

Fills Important Gap in School Programs

While the program described does not meet all of the needs of all of the children, there is no question that it fills an important gap in our system of education. For some time there has been concern in Chicago about over-age pupils and the need for a program specifically designed for them. Thanks to the persistence of and efforts of many interested persons, the program now exists.

In the short time they have been in operation the Vocational Guidance and Education Centers have proved their worth in the numbers of salvaged children who had seemed doomed to join the ranks of out-of-school, out-of-work youths. As we are able to help youth become productive, contributing citizens, to that degree do we justify every dollar spent on the education of each child and substantially reduce the cost of sheltering the non-productive, non-contributors of society.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR – IN CHILD THERAPY

PART 8

Research Related to Guidance in Elementary Schools

A number of research projects conducted in education and psychology have implications for guidance and counseling in the elementary school. Four significant research reports were selected for this section of the book.

Professors Gerald and Norma Kowitz of the University of Houston studied patterns of pupil attendance to determine the degree of relationship which existed between school attendance and academic development of four groups of elementary school pupils. Children were identified and described for each of the four groups: Group E, a student who is making good progress but could benefit from more varied and enriched experiences; Group S-P, a child with social or personal problems of sufficient intensity that special help is required before he can benefit from regular classroom work; Group L-E, a pupil who has learning or educational problems with which he needs help before he can benefit from regular classroom work; Group N-A, a child who is considered by his teachers to be average, or normal. The attendance patterns do not vary significantly among the four groups. Statistically speaking, the children in the problem categories do not differ in their attendance from the children in the normal and in the enrichment groups. This finding should be of interest to teachers, counselors and school administrators. Kowitz and Kowitz state that because the groups did not differ significantly, further investigation of the considerable amount of time, money and concern given to the keeping of school attendance records should be studied.

Dr. Joseph P. Rice, Jr., district psychologist for Lompos United School District in California, studied the types of problems referred to a central guidance agency at different grade levels. His exploratory study attempted to (1) develop a classification of children's problem areas based on empirical evidence, (2) collect data statistically to answer the question, "Are children referred for different basic reasons at various grade levels?" (3) collect material on the qualitative kinds of problems children present at different stages as they develop.

Dr. Rice found that his study tends to indicate that teachers are capable of diagnosing students' problems to the extent that they are capable of expressing their findings in suitable and appropriate terminology.

Professors John J. Teigland, Paul F. Munger, Gerald D. Kranzler and Dr. Ronald C. Winkler found that their research findings were in accord with previous reports stating that underachievers are less often selected by their peers than achievers. The results of this study suggest that those concomitants of underachievement that are found at the secondary and college levels are also observed in underachievers at the elementary school level. Thus, the authors contend it is necessary to begin work with underachievers at the elementary school level so that by modifying their underachieving behavior they might gain the maximum benefit from their educational experience.

School subject preferences of elementary school children of the middle grades was the topic of investigation conducted by E. L. Greenblatt, whose report appeared in *The Journal of Educational Research* in August, 1962. A similar study was conducted by Professors James Inskeep and Monroe Rowland. Their study yields data bearing directly on the Greenblatt study. The writers conclude, as a result of both their own findings and those of Greenblatt, that there is no significant correlation between the preferences of the pupils and the preferences of the teachers for the elementary school subjects. Other findings are also listed which have guidance implications for the elementary schools.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AS AN INDEX OF GUIDANCE NEEDS

GERALD KOWITZ, NORMA GIESS KOWITZ

A high correlation is usually assumed between school attendance and achievement (Kayser, 1959). Attendance is also believed to relate to the child's adjustment to the school environment (Kowitz & Kowitz, 1959, p. 96). Recent reports have suggested that patterns of poor school attendance correlated with symptoms of behaviors that should be amenable to guidance services (Greene, 1963a; 1963b).

The attendance data analyzed in this study were gathered from the permanent records of second-grade pupils. Their teachers were interviewed as a part of a study of guidance needs in the primary grades (Kowitz & others, 1965). All of the teachers had been recommended by their school district as competent, and could be described by one of four categories: The "A" teachers had five years or less experience, the "B" teachers had six or more years of experience. Both the "A" and the "B" teachers were in schools serving a community with an average annual family income of less than $6,000. The "C" teacher had five years or less experience. The "D" teacher had six or more years of classroom experience. Both the "C" and the "D" teachers were in schools serving a community with an average family income of more than $6,000 annually. Each teacher was asked to identify and describe a child for each of four classifications.

Group E:

A student who is making good progress but could benefit from more and varied and enriched experiences.

Group S-P:

A child with social or personal problems of sufficient intensity that special help is required before he can benefit from regular classroom work.

Group L-E:

A pupil who has learning or educational problems with which he needs help before he can benefit from regular classroom work.

Group N-A:

A child who is considered by his teacher to be average or normal.

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The final working sample consisted of 60 teachers who taught a total of 1,760 pupils; the average class size was 29.3. The 240 students who were discussed in the interviews and who were placed into one of the four pupil groups by their teachers did not vary from the U. S. Census sex ratios for the age and geographic area. Attendance records were not available on five students.

Rationale

An important aspect of the study is that it was concerned with the problems of the pupils as identified by their teachers. Teachers have often related poor attendance to learning problems and to behavior problems. On the one hand, children who are sporadic in their school attendance may be expected to develop learning problems because they do not acquire an adequate background for the more advanced work. Similarly, children who are constantly in trouble in school may find it more restful, peaceful . . . and practical . . . to be absent. In contrast, children who are doing well in school, whom the teacher would identify for the enrichment group, are believed to enjoy school and to have superior attendance records. In the same vein, children with the higher socioeconomic backgrounds are usually believed to come from homes that value school achievement. As a result, they should be expected to have better attendance records than the children from the lower economic neighborhoods.

One sometimes wonders whether the reasons for absences imputed to the children are not overly sophisticated. They reflect more of the attitudes and expectations of the parents or of the teachers and administrators than the actual reasons for children missing school. If the traditions and beliefs are correct, they should be reflected in significant differences between the behavioral categories to which the teachers assigned the pupils.

The administrator's concern over school attendance is more closely aligned with the laws governing compulsory attendance and state-aid payments. These laws, especially the latter group, require detailed records and absorb much administrative time and energy. The contrast can be seen in the records gathered in the present study. While 97.9 per cent of the attendance records proved usable, only about 15 per cent of the academic cumulative records were complete enough to be usable.

In contrast to the concern of the teacher and the administrator over attendance records, a concern that often approaches obsession, the guidance worker is usually concerned with attendance records only when they are an additional, assigned task. In most cases he views attendance as a demanding piece of drudgery that keeps him from important and interesting work.

To the extent that attendance data can be used to screen pupils who are potentially in trouble in their educational or personal development, attendance data should be extremely valuable to the guidance services, especially since they are among the better-kept school records.

Attendance can be examined in terms of several patterns. One analysis suggests that a child who is physically ill will probably be absent for several days at a time while the child who is "sick of school" will more likely be absent only a single day, perhaps in conjunction with a weekend. Thus, an adequate study of patterns of absence must separate extended or multiple-day absences (MDA) from a single day absence (SDA). Another contaminating factor derives from the method of keeping attendance records. It is not difficult to determine the number of days a child has been present; this is a common basis for state aid payments. However, if a child transfers into the school during the year, the record of days present may be misleading.

Analysis

A first analysis was concerned with the number of days enrolled. As has been pointed out, both the number of days a child is present and the number of days he is absent will be a function of the number of days he is enrolled. The analysis is summarized in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1

Days Enrolled According to Teacher and Pupil Groups

	Pupil Groups				
	E	S-P	L-E	N-A	Total
Mean	161.47	155.78	156.10	164.05	159.46
Standard deviation	22.92	26.21	31.69	12.63	24.37
	Teacher Groups				
	A	B	C	D	Total
Mean	162.50	166.25	148.44**	159.15	159.46
Standard deviation	18.46	22.10	34.13	15.08	24.37

**Indicates a difference that is significant beyond the one per cent level of confidence.

The multiple-classification analysis of variance revealed no differences in the average number of days enrolled for the four student groups. There was a real difference, beyond the one per cent level of confidence, among teacher groups. Further investigation revealed that the "C" teacher, the teacher with less than five years experience in a school serving a community with above-average family income, had a class into which, on the average, 59.3 per cent of the children had transferred during the year. Apparently, the transfer child is most often assigned to the relatively inexperienced teacher. Pupil mobility was distinctly greater in the above-average income groups than in the lower income groups. The pattern is supported by other studies of population mobility (Lansing & others, 1963).

The analysis of the number of days present showed a similar pattern; the "C" teacher group was again significantly lower than the others. Of course, the number of days present should be a rather direct function of the number of days enrolled.

The actual number of days absent by teacher and pupil groups is presented in Table 2. An adequate analysis of these data required taking into consideration the number of days the student had been enrolled.

The means and standard deviations for the adjusted data reflecting single day absences are presented in Table 3. The analysis of variance revealed no significant differences among the teacher groups nor among

TABLE 2

Average Days Absent According to Teacher and Pupil Groups

	Pupil Groups				
	E	S-P	L-E	N-A	Total
SDA[1]	5.0	6.5	4.9	5.0	5.5
MDA[2]	2.9	1.9	2.9	2.3	2.5
TDA[3]	7.9	8.4	7.7	7.3	8.0
	Teacher Groups				
	A	B	C	D	Total
SDA[1]	6.1	7.0	3.5	4.5	5.5
MDA[2]	1.9	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.5
TDA[3]	8.0	10.7	5.4	6.9	8.0

[1] SDA: Single days absent.
[2] MDA: Multiple days absent.
[3] TDA: Total days absent.

TABLE 3

Summary of Single Day Absences Adjusted to a Standard School Year

Teacher Groups		Pupil Groups			
		E	S-P	L-E	N-A
A	Mean	7.26	5.54	4.04	5.05
	Standard deviation	6.15	4.73	3.65	5.89
B	Mean	4.16	6.79	6.05	3.60
	Standard deviation	5.34	6.89	6.96	2.60
C	Mean	5.72	9.27	5.94	7.88
	Standard deviation	5.06	12.08	4.98	6.79
D	Mean	7.32	5.39	11.44	3.95
	Standard deviation	6.78	6.25	12.56	3.75

the pupil groups. Thus, the notion that the single day absences may be a useful diagnostic tool for the guidance services cannot be supported.

The second analysis was concerned with the multiple-day absences. TABLE 4 presents the means and standard deviations for the teacher and pupil groups. The analysis of variance failed to reveal any significant differences among the teacher groups, among pupil groups, or in the interactions among teacher and pupil groups. Thus, the notion that the multiple days absent could be a useful diagnostic tool for the guidance services was not supported.

A final analysis was made of the total number of days absent. TABLE 5 presented means and standard deviations for the total absences. The results were comparable to those of the other two analyses: no significant differences were found among teacher groups, pupil groups, or among their interactions. Thus, the notion that school attendance is a useful index for the guidance services received no support from these data.

Discussion

If any relationships existed between patterns of school attendance and academic development, the classification of pupils by their teachers into the four groups should have revealed them. However, the attend-

TABLE 4

Summary of Multiple-Day Absences Adjusted to a Standard School Year

Teacher Groups		Pupil Groups E	 S-P	 L-E	 N-A
A	Mean	3.60	1.58	3.01	1.37
	Standard deviation	4.21	2.62	4.97	1.89
B	Mean	3.94	3.78	4.74	3.13
	Standard deviation	7.67	5.63	10.16	5.09
C	Mean	3.21	0.0	2.33	2.09
	Standard deviation	5.62	0.0	4.86	4.56
D	Mean	2.11	2.63	5.17	2.53
	Standard deviation	3.37	4.03	6.21	3.84

TABLE 5

Summary of Total Days Absences Adjusted to a Standard School Year

Teacher Groups		Pupil Groups E	 S-P	 L-E	 N-A
A	Mean	10.44	8.54	14.46	5.32
	Standard deviation	7.05	6.58	12.98	3.57
B	Mean	9.67	13.48	10.68	11.02
	Standard deviation	9.81	11.91	9.91	7.42
C	Mean	7.59	6.79	8.38	7.16
	Standard deviation	6.62	6.35	7.75	4.86
D	Mean	9.36	8.14	9.23	7.57
	Standard deviation	6.16	5.05	5.41	6.06

ance patterns did not vary significantly among the four groups. Statistically speaking, the children who were in the problem categories did not differ in their attendance from the children in the normal and in the enrichment groups. These results suggest also that the idea of a close and direct relationship between attendance and achievement may not be as potent as is often supposed since the pupils in the enrichment group did not vary significantly from the other groups. Perhaps one of the most interesting aspects of the study of school attendance can be seen from TABLE 5. If one examines the average number of days absent and the standard deviation of the absences among the students, it becomes apparent that the average number of days absent is not significantly different from zero. Since it represents essentially a random variation from zero, we should not expect the attendance records to be of diagnostic significance. However, the fact that they were not different should lead to further investigation of the considerable amount of time, money, and concern given to the keeping of school attendance records.

Quite contrary to expectations, the number of single days absent was greater than the number of multiple days absent. The difference suggests a need for a careful rethinking of the reasons children are absent from school.

Another point of interest is that although the average rate of absences was not significantly different from zero for any group, nevertheless, in every group there was an occasional child with an extremely high rate of absences. It may be well that the data should be explored with nonparametric statistics rather than the usual normative statistics. On the other hand, there is also a good possibility that the beliefs in school attendance are sufficiently intense and ingrained that all activities that are contrary to an easy classroom or school operation are associated with presumed negative correlates. For example, a teacher who has recognized the fact that a given child is experiencing considerable difficulty in mastering the assigned content may become overly sensitive to his absences. In contrast, the teacher may be relatively insensitive to the absences of a child who has achieved well beyond minimum standards.

TABLE 5 presents one other interesting statistic. The only group which showed a perfect record of attendance was the S-P x C group. These were children identified as having significant social or personal problems and were assigned to teachers who were relatively inexperienced. The schools were serving neighborhoods with a higher economic background. This result was quite unpredictable from common belief about the patterns of school absences. The younger teachers, perhaps because of their more recent training or simply because of their inexperience, were doing a somewhat better job of meeting individual needs. Their efforts, in combination with the interest of the home, may have encouraged school attendance. However, this group also contained a significantly higher number of transfer students. They may not have been in the school long enough for their true pattern of absences to be revealed.

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TYPES OF PROBLEMS REFERRED TO A CENTRAL GUIDANCE AGENCY AT DIFFERENT GRADE LEVELS

JOSEPH P. RICE, JR.

Most writers in the child development field make reference to the types of problems bothering children at various developmental levels [3-5, 7]. However, few researchers attempt to document their theories with empirical evidence. This exploratory study attempted to (1) develop a classification of children's problem areas based upon empirical evidence, (2) collect data statistically to answer the question, "Are children referred for different basic reasons at various grade levels?," and (3) collect material on the qualitative kinds of problems children present at different stages as they develop.

This study tends to indicate that teachers are capable of diagnosing students' problems to the extent that they are capable of expressing their findings in suitable and appropriate terminology.

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Background

The children studied were drawn from a total student population of approximately 9,000. The school district is comprised of ten elementary schools, two junior highs, and one high school. It is a widely dispersed population with an extensive bus service. The school population is composed largely of dependents of military personnel and defense-related technical personnel.

Children may be referred for evaluation directly by teachers, parents, or administrators. The central guidance office receives approximately 600 signed referrals a year. Approximately 500 children are evaluated by the central office psychological staff composed of two psychologists and various school counselors.

Due to the dispersion of the student population and the "cosmopolitan quality" of the parent population, these students probably resemble those found in an urban area. District-wide standardized test results indicate that these students are typically above average in intelligence as well as most achievement areas as compared with a normal state-wide population. Of course, children specifically referred to a central guidance agency are referred for special reasons and may be lower than the typical student population both in intellectual endowment and achievement.

Plan of Study

The 283 children studied were all typical cases referred to this central guidance agency during a spring and fall semester. In order to be included in this study the following criteria had to be met: (1) a complete "psychological referral form" was required and had to be thoroughly filled out by the referring teacher; (2) a diagnostic teacher-psychologist conference had to be held in order to clarify the reasons for referral; (3) extensive case notes including final disposition and recommendations had to be completed; and (4) a minimum psychometric examination including an individual intelligence test was required.

During this study, teachers were asked to designate one and only one primary reason why the child was referred for central office guidance evaluation. However, the teacher could mention as many secondary reasons for referral as were necessary to explain the problems in a particular case. The referral form was completely open-ended and unstructured. The guiding principle for filling out the referral form was that the teacher be "explicit, specific, and thorough in explaining the referred child's problems." No "categories" were suggested for use by teachers. Over 200 teachers were involved in submitting the 283 referrals included in this study. The teachers came from different parts of the country and from widely varied educational backgrounds. The teachers were deemed to be as "random a sample" as the students studied.

The referral forms were studied by three judges including an administrator, a psychologist, and a teacher. Two of the three judges had to agree upon an ambiguously expressed problem category or it was sent back to the teacher for clarification. Persistent categorizing and reshuffling of the data resulted in the six major problem categories outlined in TABLE 1.

The following types of problems were mentioned consistently by teachers at most grade levels:

1. *Emotional Reactions*: (a) anxiety, (b) hyperactivity, (c) immaturity, (d) impulsivity, (e) moodiness, and (f) withdrawal;
2. *Intellectual Disabilities*: (a) short attention span, (b) low ability, (c) memory defective, (d) perceptual malfunctioning, (e) study habits poor, (f) underachieving without apparent reason, and (g) unable to understand, including linguistic problems;
3. *Motivational Inadequacy*: (a) ambition (lack of), (b) attitude poor or negative, (c) frustration, (d) interest (lack of), and (e) low level of aspiration;
4. *Moral Defect*: (a) lying, (b) obscenity, (c) psychosexual indescretion, (d) stealing, (e) training lacking, and (f) values undeveloped or nonexistent;
5. *Physical Ailments*: (a) chronic illness, (b) health habits poor, (c) orthopedic handicap, (d) psychosomatic manifestations, and (e) neurological handicap;
6. *Social Maladjustment*: (a) anti-social, including aggression, (b) discipline lacking, (c) family conflict, (d) isolation or seclusion, and (e) uncouth behavior.

All of the problem categories were derived empirically from the data as they were studied. The six final broad-problem categories were found to be adequate for the inclusion of almost all student problems at all grade levels.

Findings

TABLE 1 includes a grand summary of the types of problems teachers referred to a central guidance agency at various grade levels. The groups were divided into primary, intermediate, junior high, and high school

TABLE 1

Types of Problems Referred to a Central Guidance Agency at Various Grade Levels by Per Cent, N = 283

Problem Categories	Primary (1-3) N = 70		Intermediate (4-6) N = 88		Junior High (7-9) N = 80		High (10-12) N = 45		
	Reason	Mention	Reason	Mention	Reason	Mention	Reason	Mention	X^2
Emotional Reactions	12.9	31.4	13.6	30.7	10.0	38.8	13.3	35.6	0.60
Intellectual Disabilities	55.7	37.1	47.7	31.8	18.8	42.5	35.6	33.3	24.90‡
Motivational Inadequacy	5.7	21.4	8.0	13.6	10.0	15.0	17.8	20.0	5.37
Moral Defect	2.9	11.4	3.4	15.9	22.5	47.5	13.3	40.0	22.45‡
Physical Ailments	8.6	28.6	2.3	17.0	5.0	12.5	4.4	11.1	3.43
Social Maladjustment	14.3	44.3	25.0	45.4	33.8	48.8	15.6	33.3	9.59*

*Significant at the five per cent level with three degrees of freedom.
‡Significant at the one per cent level with three degrees of freedom.

pupils. TABLE 1 indicates the per cent of teachers mentioning the specific problem categories as secondary reasons for referral. Teachers usually mentioned secondary problems more than once. Therefore, the total percentage figures in the "mention" column are usually higher than the sum in a particular problem category. For example, the teacher may have mentioned that the child was anxious, immature, and moody. In the final tabulation, this child would be counted only once as being mentioned for some emotional reason.

Chi-square has been computed for each of the six major problem areas. It was found that significantly different numbers of children were referred for (1) intellectual; (2) moral; and (3) social problems at different grade levels. Close scrutiny of these figures reveals that a high number of primary children were referred for intellectual problems and this accounts for the significant variation in this category. The significantly higher proportion of junior high school pupils referred for moral and social problems accounts for most of the significant variation in those categories.

It is interesting that the proportion of teachers mentioning emotional problems does not vary much from grade level to grade level. Also of special interest is the fact that following junior high school level the percentages of children reported as manifesting moodiness, anxiety, and withdrawal tends to rise sharply.

The pupils with severe intellectual problems seem to be referred early for diagnosis and so this category tapers off as the primary reason for referral. However, this category was mentioned consistently at all grade levels. Study habits seem to show up adversely by the intermediate level. Due to dropouts, low ability probably ceased to be a major problem by the high school level.

Motivational problems do not reach their peak until the high school level and here poor or negative attitudes appear to be the greatest problem. Proportional increases of lying and other moral offenses were reported at the junior high level. It is interesting to note that lack of proper training appears to be blamed by a large percentage of the teachers for the inept moral development of junior high school pupils. Moral problems seem to taper off at the high school level possibly due again to dropout.

Physical problems remained fairly constant. Social difficulties showed distinct increase as the child gets older. A combination of family problems and poor self-discipline habits seemed to be the underlying factors here. As we might expect, uncouth behavior reached its peak at the junior high school level.

Summary

During this study we have found that teachers can supply a central guidance agency with well-defined diagnostic descriptions of children's problems. The primary reason for referring children at different grade levels has been shown to vary considerably.

Primary school children were shown to be referred primarily for intellectual problems particularly involving low ability. Among primary children most other problem categories were mentioned but not as repeatedly nor as consistently as at higher grade levels.

Intermediate pupils were also largely referred for intellectual problems but these included more perceptual difficulties complicated by under-achieving. Also an increase in social problems, especially involving anti-social activities, was found.

It was at the junior high school level that the configuration of problem categories was found to change radically. The proportion of social problems, particularly those involving family conflicts, was seen to soar as did the proportion of moral problems.

At the high school level some re-emergence of intellectual problems was noted and the proportion of motivational problems reached a peak and accounted for the "significant differences" found for this category at different grade levels. Social and moral problems, though still higher than for elementary school levels, tapered off from the junior high school peak levels.

In summary, it was found that: (1) pupils' problems could be classified into six main categories at any grade level, (2) pupils tend to be referred for different reasons at different grade levels; the number of children referred for intellectual, moral, and social reasons varied significantly at various levels, (3) intellectual disabilities and social maladjustment seem to be the most common problems at any grade level, (4) problems of moral defect and physical ailments tend to be less common problems at all grade levels, except that junior high school pupils manifest more moral problems than do pupils at other grade levels, and (5) problems arising from emotional reactions tend to be constant at all grade levels.

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SOME CONCOMITANTS OF UNDERACHIEVEMENT AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

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In recent years much attention has been given to the problem of academic underachievement. Investigators have attempted to ascertain characteristics that differentiate the underachiever from the student who is functioning at a level commensurate with his intellectual ability. A survey of the literature on underachievement indicates that most research has dealt with this problem as it exists at the secondary school or college levels.

The fact that underachievement exists at the elementary school level has been demonstrated by Barrett (1957) and Shaw and McCuen (1960). Yet, little information is available concerning personality differences between elementary school achievers and underachievers. If these students are to gain the maximum benefit from their educational experience, it would seem important to have more descriptive information about them from which to build a meaningful approach to the problem and factors related to it.

To help accomplish this goal an attempt was made to identify some of the concomitants of underachievement at the elementary school level.

Method

Sample

The subjects employed in this investigation were drawn from approximately 700 fourth-grade students in the public school system at Grand Forks, North Dakota.

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All subjects were administered the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) Verbal Scale during the first two months of the school year 1963-64.

The grade-point averages (GPA) in seven academic subjects for the first two six-week periods were computed for each subject. The mean of these two scores was then computed for each subject, resulting in the mean GPA for the two grading periods.

For each of the 22 classrooms of fourth-grade students, product-moment correlations were computed between the subjects' WISC Verbal IQ score and mean GPA. From these correlation coefficients, regression equations were computed for each subject to predict his (GPA^1) based on his WISC IQ score. If the GPA^1 was greater than .8 standard error of estimate above the subject's obtained GPA, the subject was identified as an underachiever. This method of identifying underachievers was repeated independently for each classroom and resulted in the identification of 118 underachievers. Of the total group, 84 were males and 34 were females.

To establish a control group for comparison purposes on the sociometric instrument, a stratified random sample of subjects was drawn from the achiever group. This sample was chosen by randomly selecting as many male and female achievers as there were underachievers in each classroom. This resulted in an equal number of male achievers and underachievers as well as an equal number of female achievers and underachievers in each classroom. This procedure was employed to allow for the phenomenon of males more often choosing males and females more often choosing females on a sociometric instrument.

The control group used for personality variable comparisons was randomly selected within each sex from the total population of achievers. Twice as many achievers were selected as there were underachievers for each sex. This resulted in 168 male control subjects and 68 female control subjects.

In comparing the underachiever and control groups on intellectual ability and achievement, it was found that the groups were not significantly different on WISC Verbal IQ scores. It was found that the control groups had significantly higher GPA's. These results indicated that the differences in achievement between underachiever and control groups could not be attributed to differences in intellectual ability.

Instruments

In addition to the WISC Verbal Scale all fourth-grade students were administered the California Test of Personality, Elementary Form (CTP) and Gronlund's Sociometric Test (GST) designed to measure peer relationships in terms of whom the respondents would like to sit by, work with, and play with. Each student selected five classroom peers for each of the three categories.

Statistical Tests

Each section of the GST was analyzed by using the Mann-Whitney U Test not corrected for ties (Siegel, 1956). The CTP variables were analyzed by using a 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance design (Lindquist, 1953).

Results

The results of this investigation give evidence that underachievers are significantly different from achievers in the areas of peer relationships and measured personality variables.

TABLE 1 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U analyses used in comparing the peer relationships of underachievers to those of achievers.

From TABLE 1 it may be seen that achievers were nominated by their peers more often than were underachievers for all three categories of the test. Therefore, it was concluded that there was a significant difference (.001 level) between achievers and underachievers in terms of peer relationships, with achievers being selected more often.

TABLE 1

Mann-Whitney U Tests for Sociometric Test Results

Comparisons Sit by	Average Number of Nominations	U
UA[†] vs. A[‡]	2.899 vs. 6.033	7.186[*]
Female UA vs. female A	2.352 vs. 5.970	3.895[*]
Male UA vs. male A	3.154 vs. 6.059	6.248[*]
Work with		
UA vs. A	3.084 vs. 6.313	6.461[*]
Female UA vs. female A	2.647 vs. 6.500	3.730[*]
Male UA vs. male A	3.261 vs. 6.238	5.630[*]
Play with		
UA vs. A	3.432 vs. 5.974	6.391[*]
Female UA vs. female A	2.941 vs. 5.970	3.994[*]
Male UA vs. male A	3.630 vs. 5.976	5.343[*]

[*] Significant at the .001 level.

[†] Underachievers N = 118, 84 males, 34 females.

[‡] Achievers N = 118, 84 males, 34 females.

The results concerning the peer relationship comparison of achievers and underachievers within each sex are also presented in TABLE 1. To test for differences the Mann-Whitney U Test was again employed. When analyzed independently for each sex, the achievers were nominated by their peers more often than were the underachievers. These differences were significant at the .001 level for all three sociometric categories. From the results of these analyses, it was concluded that within each sex there was a significant difference in peer relationships between achievers and underachievers, with achievers again being selected more often.

To determine if there were personality differences between the two groups, a 2 x 2 analysis of variance was computed for each variable of the CTP. The results of these analyses are found in TABLE 2.

It was found that the achievers scored higher, or towards better adjustment, on all CTP scales. One scale, Self-Reliance, differentiated between the groups at the .05 level of significance. Four scales, Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies, Social Skills, Anti-Social Tendencies, and Family Relations, differentiated between the groups at the .01 level of significance. Eight scales – Sense of Personal Worth, Feeling of Belonging, Freedom from Nervous Symptoms, Social Standards, School Relations, Community Relations, Sense of Personal Freedom, and Social Adjustment – differentiated between the groups at the .001 level of significance.

The analyses of the scales of Personal Adjustment and Total Adjustment resulted in significant interactions; therefore, the cell mean differences were not accurately reflected in the main effects. For this reason, the four cell means for each scale were compared for significant differences. The comparisons made for each scale were male achievers vs. male underachievers, female achievers vs. female underachievers, male achievers vs. female achievers, and male underachievers vs. female underachievers. TABLE 3 presents the results of these *t* comparisons.

On both variables, the achievers were significantly different (.001 level) from the underachievers for each sex. These differences were in the direction of better adjustment for the achievers. No significant differences were found between sexes within either the achiever or underachiever group.

On the basis of these results, it was concluded that there were significant differences between underachievers and achievers on measured personality variables. The achievers scored higher, or towards better adjustment, on all variables of the CTP, including those variables with a significant interaction.

TABLE 2

F Tests of Personality Variables Based on Achievement, Sex, and Interaction

Variable	Means						
	Achiever		Underachiever				
	Male	Female	Male	Female	F/ach.	F/sex	Interaction
Self-reliance	7.51	7.88	7.04	7.44	5.63*	3.41	.00
Sense of personal worth	8.47	8.73	7.76	7.73	11.09‡	.46	.31
Sense of personal freedom	8.79	9.36	7.88	7.47	21.49‡	.82	2.94
Feeling of belonging	9.83	10.07	9.11	8.41	18.54‡	.11	3.43
Freedom from withdrawing tendencies	7.64	7.51	7.11	5.73	8.24†	2.91	3.34
Freedom from nervous symptoms	8.07	7.92	7.11	5.73	18.08‡	3.05	3.27
Personal adjustment	50.35	51.50	46.04	42.52	28.43‡	.14	3.98*
Social standards	10.02	10.72	9.66	9.79	12.40‡	3.96*	.88
Social skills	8.95	9.58	8.55	8.26	8.93†	2.00	3.63
Freedom from anti-social tendencies	8.25	8.91	7.73	7.32	9.45†	1.14	3.25
Family relations	9.17	10.08	8.58	9.14	6.79†	8.38†	.36
School relations	8.97	9.44	7.97	7.52	23.48‡	.35	2.51
Community relations	9.69	10.02	8.98	8.88	21.75‡	1.00	1.23
Social adjustment	55.25	58.77	51.51	51.05	26.13‡	4.87*	3.54
Total adjustment	105.60	110.25	97.55	93.58	32.36‡	.85	4.44*

*Significant at the .05 level.
†Significant at the .01 level.
‡Significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 3

Results of t Tests of Personal Adjustment and Total Adjustment Scores When Compared by Sex

	Means		D_M	df	t
Personal Adjustment					
Male A† vs. male UA‡	50.35	46.04	4.31	350	3.42*
Female A vs. female UA	51.50	42.52	8.98	350	4.56*
Male A vs. female A	50.35	51.50	1.15	350	.83
Male UA vs. female UA	46.04	42.52	3.52	350	1.85
Total Adjustment					
Male A vs. Male UA	105.60	97.55	8.05	350	3.66*
Female A vs. female UA	110.25	93.58	16.67	350	4.85*
Male A vs. female A	105.60	110.25	4.65	350	1.95
Male UA vs. female UA	97.55	93.58	3.97	350	1.20

*Significant at the .001 level.
†A = Achievers.
‡UA = Underachievers.

To determine if there were sex differences on the personality variables within the achieving and underachieving groups, the three variables with significant main effects were analyzed for differences in cell means. These variables were Social Standards, Family Relations, and Social Adjustment. For each variable, the comparisons male achiever vs. female achiever and male underachiever vs. female underachiever were made as presented in TABLE 4.

On all three variables, the female achievers scored significantly higher, or towards better adjustment, than the male achievers. No differences existed between the sexes for the underachiever group.

On the basis of these results, it was concluded that there were significant differences between males and females of the achieving group on certain measured personality variables, but that no differences existed between males and females of the underachieving group.

Discussion

The results of this investigation were in accord with previous findings at the secondary level which indicated that underachievers were less often selected by their peers than were achievers (Barret, 1957; Kurtz and Swenson, 1951; Morrow and Wilson, 1961). Therefore, the peer relationship typical of secondary school underachievers also seems to be typical of the fourth-grade underachievers employed in this study.

TABLE 4

Results of t Tests of Social Standards, Family Relation, and Social Adjustment Scores When Compared by Sex

Variable	Comparisons	Means	df	t
Social standards	Male ach. vs. female ach.	10.20 vs. 10.72	350	2.166*
Social standards	Male underach. vs. female underach.	9.79 vs. 9.66	350	.393
Family relations	Male ach. vs. female ach.	9.17 vs. 10.08	350	2.676†
Family relations	Male underach. vs. female underach.	8.58 vs. 9.14	350	1.166
Social adjustment	Male ach. vs. female ach.	55.25 vs. 58.77	350	2.862†
Social adjustment	Male underach. vs. female underach.	51.51 vs. 51.05	350	.286

*Significant at the .05 level.
†Significant at the .01 level.

The mean difference in number of peer nominations was quite marked for all three categories of the sociometric test. This finding would indicate that the peers of underachievers tend to have an overall attitude towards underachievers that is reflected in their relationship with them. Therefore, this attitude is made up of more than not choosing to *work* with underachievers, which is the consequence which would seem to be most closely related to the underachiever's academic difficulty. It is highly probable that if more and different kinds of relationships were included in a sociometric evaluation this same attitude would prevail. The same phenomenon of underachievers not being selected as often holds true when underachievers and achievers are compared within each sex.

Although the cause of this finding is not apparent, it might be hypothesized that the difficulty of relating with their peers intensifies the underachievers' problems and contributes to their inadequate academic performance. Or, on the other hand, underachievement might contribute to the difficulty in relating with one's peers. In any event, there is a marked difference in terms of peer acceptance between the two types of students.

The second major finding of the study was that the achievers scored significantly higher or towards better adjustment on all CTP scales. Because of this rather conclusive evidence, it would seem that underachievement is more than a surface phenomenon and involves the global personality of the elementary school student. This finding concurs with several studies that have demonstrated that personality differences exist between achievers and underachievers at the secondary school and college level. It seems that underachievers have problems in the area of personality adjustment that might make it difficult for them to achieve academically, regardless of the level of education.

As in the case of peer relations, there were no significant differences between male and female underachievers on any of the personality variables.

The inadequate personality adjustment of the underachiever, when viewed in conjunction with his poor peer relations, suggests that the underachiever has definite personal problems that conflict with gaining a satisfactory learning experience in the classroom.

An ancillary finding that was consistent with previous findings was that more male underachievers were identified than were female underachievers. The ratio of males to females identified was over 3:1. This type of result is typical of studies dealing with underachievers. Shaw (1961) has stated that one of the most universally agreed upon characteristics of underachievement is that it is predominantly a male problem. However, it should be noted that even though proportionally more underachievers are males, the females identified as underachievers have the same level of measured personality adjustment and lack of peer relationships as do male underachievers.

The results of this investigation suggest that those concomitants of underachievement that were found at the secondary and college levels are also observed in underachievers at the elementary school level. This further suggests that the pattern associated with underachievement is fairly well established by the fourth-grade level and apparently tends to persist as the student continues his schooling. Thus, it would seem necessary to begin to work with underachievers at the elementary school level so that by modifying their underachieving behavior they might gain the maximum benefit from their educational experience.

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AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL SUBJECT PREFERENCES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN OF THE MIDDLE CLASS: ANOTHER LOOK

JAMES INSKEEP, MONROE ROWLAND

The school subject preferences of middle-grade children was the topic of a *Journal of Educational Research* article by E. L. Greenblatt appearing in the August 1962 issue, pp. 554-60. The present study, undertaken for slightly different purposes, which dictated a rather different design, yielded data bearing directly on the Greenblatt study.

Procedure

Data were obtained using 550 children and their teachers in the Cajon Valley Union School District, California. All 19 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade classes were taken from three schools in different socioeconomic areas. The teachers, 12 women and seven men, reflected a range of age and experience.

Data Collected

The following data were obtained from the pupils:

1. Grade level
2. Sex
3. Preference for school subjects
4. Perception of teacher's preference for school subjects

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5. Perception of own success in school subjects
6. Degree of enjoyment of school

The following data were obtained from the teachers:

1. Grade level taught
2. Sex
3. Preference for school subjects

Method of Collecting Data

Questionnaires were administered to one class of pupils at a time by the two investigators working as a team. Directions were kept as nearly identical as possible, with the same investigator giving the same instructions in all cases. Data collection was accomplished during the last week of April, 1962.

Pupils indicated their preference for the school subjects and their perception of their teacher's preference for the school subjects by performing Q-sorts of a list of the school subjects. Pupils expressed their perception of their academic success by underlining the title of the subject in which they felt most competent. Similarly they crossed out the subject in which they felt least competent. The pupils' sex, grade level, and degree of enjoyment of school required only checking in appropriate blanks.

Teachers checked appropriate blanks to indicate their sex and grade level taught. They also performed a Q-sort of a list of the school subjects to indicate their preferences.

Analysis

Two correlation coefficients were derived for each of the 550 children, yielding 1100 correlations in all. The two were (1) the correlation of each individual pupil's subject preferences with the preferences of his teacher – called "actual attitude congruence", and (2) the correlation of each individual pupil's preference with his perception of the preferences of his teacher – called "perceived attitudes congruences".[2] The correlation coefficients obtained in the study were Spearman rhos based on an approximately normal distribution of ranks. They were averaged through the z transformation for all of the various subgroups which are discussed. The averages thus obtained were analyzed with the t test.

After reading the Greenblatt article, the writers for comparative purposes, recast their data and analyzed them in the manner employed by Greenblatt. This recasting was accomplished by assigning three points to the subject identified on the Q-sort as "most enjoyed" and one and one-half points to the two subjects identified as "next most enjoyed". The values were then summed for all participants. The summed values are presented in TABLE 1.

Findings

Findings Consistent with Those of Greenblatt

Pupil Preferences. When the writers treated their data in the manner of Greenblatt, they found their list of pupil preferences to be markedly similar to that of Greenblatt. A Spearman rho of .64 was obtained for the two lists. However, one difference in subject title and content was obvious in the two lists – Greenblatt's "Health" and the pilot study's "Health and Physical Education". Because of this difference the subject was removed from both lists and a new Spearman rho was calculated. The value for the new rho was .96. TABLE 1 presents the list of preferences as developed from the pilot study. It shows arithmetic as the most preferred subject, language as the least preferred, and the other subjects distributed between arithmetic and language.

Actual Attitude Congruence. The two studies have one other point of agreement. Greenblatt obtained a Spearman rho of .55 between the preferences of his pupils and the preferences of his teachers. This figure is not significantly different from a zero correlation. The writers obtained, in the same manner, a Spearman rho of –.17. This too is not significant. When the pilot study data were treated in the Q-technique and averaged through the z transformation, the average rho was equal to –.02.

TABLE 1

Point Accumulations for Selected Subjects

Subject	Points Assigned
Arithmetic	507 (most preferred)
Art	487.5
Health and Physical Education	385.5
Reading	352.5
Spelling	291
Science	288
Music	285
Social Studies	169.5
Handwriting	96
Language	37.5 (least preferred)

Additional Findings

Ability to List Pupil Preferences. The writers, in order to check the effect of the order of presentation of school subjects on expressed preference used an alternate list of subjects with a randomly selected 10 percent of the pupils. The alternate list was exactly the reverse of the basic list: "Arithmetic" was first on the basic list and last on the alternate list; "Spelling" headed the alternate list and was last on the basic list. When expressed preferences for "Arithmetic" on the two lists were analyzed, a chi-square of 19.27 was obtained – a value significant at the .005 level. The chi-square for "Spelling" was 8.3 – a value significant at the .10 level. TABLE 2 presents the data on which these chi-squares are based. The preference list for the pilot study, when derived in the Greenblatt manner, correlated with the order of presentation with a rho of .35 – a figure not significantly different statistically from zero but, in the light of the preceding chi-squares, worth noting. The writers strongly question the advisability of deriving ranked pupil preference unless the effect of the order of presentation is controlled.

TABLE 2

Frequency of Q-Sort Ranks Assigned to Arithmetic and Spelling for Different Positions in the List of Subjects

	Q-Sort Ranks					
	1	2	3	4	5	x^2
Arithmetic: First on List	106	126	99	76	76	19.27
Arithmetic: Last on List	5	11	20	6	1	
Spelling: Last on List	38	118	175	107	45	8.3
Spelling: First on List	8	13	10	7	4	

Pupil Achievement and Preference. Greenblatt found little evidence of a relationship between achievement and subject preference. The only significant relationship which he reported was between the achievement of girls in arithmetic and their preference for it. The pilot study obtained no data on achievement. However, it did obtain the pupils' *perceptions* of the subjects in which they were most and least successful. When these perceptions and the pupils' preferences were analyzed, a chi-square of 573.79 obtained. This figure is significant well beyond the .01 level. The data supporting this chi-square are presented in TABLE 3.

TABLE 3

Frequency of Q-Sort Ranks Assigned to the Subjects in Which Pupils Perceived The Most Success and Least Success

	Q-Sort Ranks					
	1	2	3	4	5	x^2
Subject Perceived Most Successful	260	124	71	18	4	573.79
Subject Perceived Least Successful	16	20	111	113	217	

Enjoyment of School and Actual Attitude Congruence. The degree of enjoyment expressed by pupils appeared to be related to the actual attitude congruence of pupils and teachers. The average rho for the teachers and their pupils who said they enjoyed school more during that school year than in other years was .04; for those who enjoyed it the same as other years. –.06; and for those who enjoyed school less than in previous years, – .14. The differences between these averages are all significant at the .05 level. The data are presented in TABLE 4.

TABLE 4

Actual Attitude Congruence for Three Groups of Pupils Who Enjoyed School to Different Degrees

	Degree of Enjoyment of School		
	More Than Other Years	Same As Other Years	Less Than Other Years
Average Rho*	+.03	–.06	–.14
Standard Deviation of z's	.39	.39	.56
Number of Cases	248	199	44

*Difference between "More" and "Same" significant at .01 level. Difference between "More" and "Less" significant at .02 level. Difference between "Same" and "Less" significant at .05 level.

Sex and Actual Attitude Congruence. The actual attitude congruence of male teachers and male pupils was significantly higher than that for any other combination of sexes. Male teachers had an average rho of .08 with their male pupils and –.06 with their female pupils. Female teachers had an average rho of –.02 with their male pupils and –.04 with their female pupils. These data are presented in TABLE 5 and significant differences are noted.

Grade Level and Actual Attitude Congruence. Pupils in the sixth grade had significantly higher actual attitude congruence with their teachers than did pupils in fourth grade ($a = .10$) or fifth grade ($a = .01$). The average rho for sixth graders was .06, for fourth graders was –.01, and for fifth graders was –.08. These data and significant differences are reported in TABLE 6.

TABLE 5

Actual Attitude Congruence for Different Sex Groupings of Pupils and Teachers

	Male Teachers		Female Teachers	
	Male Pupils	Female Pupils	Male Pupils	Female Pupils
Average Rho*	+.08	–.06	–.02	–.04
Standard Deviation of z's	.38	.40	.39	.45
Number of Cases	104	76	168	136

*Difference between Male Teachers-Male Pupils and 1. Male Teachers-Female Pupils significant at .05 level. 2. Female Teachers-Male Pupils significant at .05 level. 3. Female Teachers-Female Pupils significant at .05 level.

Perceived Attitude Congruence and Actual Attitude Congruence. Although the correlation between perceived attitude congruence and actual attitude congruence was .00, when the mean rhos on actual attitude congruence for those 28 pupils with the highest perceived attitude congruence and the 30 pupils with the lowest perceived attitude congruence were tested, a significant difference was found. The 28 pupils with the highest perceived attitude congruence had an average rho of .05 on actual attitude congruence. The 30 pupils with the lowest perceived attitude congruence had an average rho of –.23 for actual attitude congruence. This difference is significant at the .01 level. The data are presented in TABLE 7.

TABLE 6

Actual Attitude Congruence for Different Grade Level Groups

	4th Grade	5th Grade	6th Grade
Average Rho*	–.01	–.08	+.06
Standard Deviation of z's	.36	.43	.40
Number of Cases	162	173	146

*Difference between 6th grade and 4th grade significant at .10 level. Difference between 6th grade and 5th grade significant at .01 level.

TABLE 7

Average Actual Attitude Congruence for the Pupils with the Top Twenty-eight and Bottom Thirty Perceived Attitude Congruences

	Perceived Attitude Congruence	
	+.75 to +.92	–.58 to –.83
Average Rho	+.05	–.23
Standard Deviation of z's	.38	.32
Number of Cases	28	30

Correlation of Teacher Preferences in Both Studies. When the preference lists of the teachers in the two studies were used to develop a Spearman rho, the value .53 was obtained. When the dissimilar items "Health" and "Health and Physical Education" were removed the value obtained was .59. Only the second value is significantly different from zero, and that at only the .10 level.

Conclusions

Having noted the significant effect of the order of presentation of school subjects, the writers concluded that, unless the effect of the order of presentation was controlled, no statement could be made that validly represented the preferences of upper grade elmentary school children for particular school subjects.

The writers concluded, as a result of both their own findings and those of Greenblatt, that there was no significant correlation between the preferences of the pupils and the preferences of the teachers for the various elementary school subjects.

Several factors were found to be related to the actual attitude congruence of the pupils and their teachers.

Those factors were:

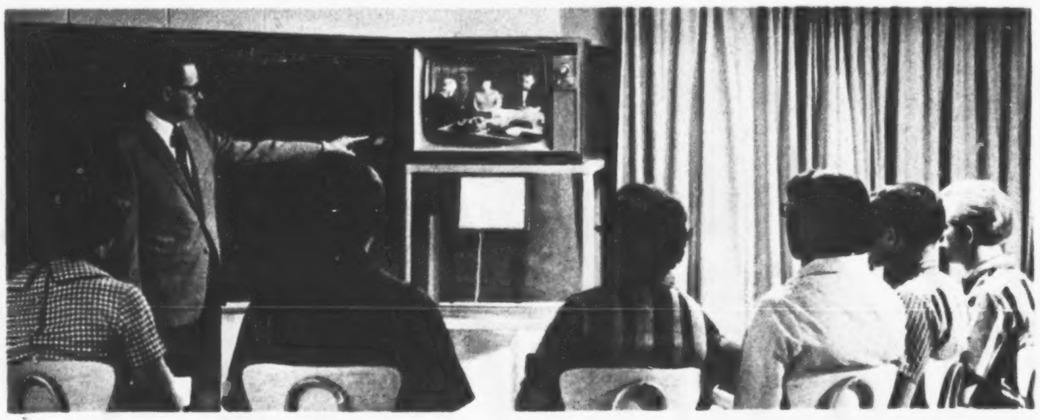
1. The degree of enjoyment pupils expressed for school.
2. The sex of the pupil and his teacher.
3. The grade level of the pupil, and
4. The perceived attitude congruence.

Because of the modest correlation between the two sets of teacher preferences for the school subjects and the very small groups which they represent, the writers caution against any attempt to generalize from them. They merely reflect the preferences of 10 teachers in Los Alamitos and nineteen teachers in El Cajon, California.

The writers recommend, to other students of this particular problem, the use of the Q-technique, yielding measures of the unique relationship between each pupil and his teacher, rather than the R-technique which yields only one correlation coefficient between the two masses of data and conceals all that is important about each pupil and his teacher.

FOOTNOTES

1. A project supported in part by a grant from the San Diego State College Foundation.
2. This Treatment of data through Q-technique, in which the unique relationship between each child and his teacher was examined, is markedly different from treatment with R-technique, as in the Greenblatt study, in which two masses of data were examined for a relationship between them. Greenblatt arrived at one correlation between the pooled preferences of his pupils and the pooled preferences of his teachers. The pilot study arrived at 550 correlation coefficients between the preferences of each pupil and the preferences of that pupil's teacher.



COUNSELOR EDUCATOR — USING MODERN TECHNIQUES IN COUNSELING EDUCATION COURSES

PART 9

Preparation Programs for Elementary School Counselors

A status study of preparation programs for elementary school counselors has been reported by Dr. Dale Nitzchke, Assistant Dean, College of Education, Ohio University. All persons involved in counselor education should find this paper informative as well as interesting. The utilization of this report should aid the future development of elementary school counselor preparation programs in schools within colleges and universities. It should serve as the base and point of departure for creating educational programs which meet high-professional standards.

It is the general consensus of counselor educators that supervised-practicum experiences are a vital part of the preparation of professional school counselors. Dr. Bill Raines describes one approach for practicum experiences for elementary school counselors which is being tried at Ohio University. Professor Raines states that the approach seems to offer some possibilities which merit consideration. He also states ". . . the structure of the practicum has been undergoing continuous revisions based on feedback from those persons involved, and there is need for experimental research to study the effectiveness of methods now being used." A careful study of this paper would be very helpful for all counselor educators who are now creating and developing elementary school counselor programs at their college or university.

Guidance does draw from many fields of human endeavor. Educators recognize that the basic content of counselor education programs do and should select from a number of disciplines. Samuel Kavruck illustrates five basic phases of the guidance process and states how they draw on various areas within the behavioral and social science fields. The use of charts gives the reader a clear picture of the interrelatedness of the disciplines.

PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE — A STATUS STUDY

DALE NITZSCHKE

In 1961, Hill and Nitzschke reported on a study designed to determine the status of preparation programs in elementary school guidance. They concluded that "Preparation programs for guidance workers in elementary schools are as yet not well defined. Some of these programs make little, if any, differentiation between preparation for the elementary school and preparation for the secondary school. Very few universities have clearly planned programs for the preparation of guidance workers in elementary schools" (Hill & Nitzschke, 1961). A great deal has been written since then concerning the preparation of elementary school guidance workers. However, little evidence exists that would indicate the direction this preparation has taken in the past few years. The present study was undertaken to determine which institutions in the United States were preparing elementary school guidance workers and to examine more closely the type of programs offered in these institutions.

Thus, it was the purpose of this study to: (1) identify institutions offering degree programs for the preparation of elementary school guidance workers; (2) determine the content and scope of these preparation programs; and (3) examine the personal and professional characteristics of both the *counselor educators* and *counselor enrollees* in each of the institutions. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. Are the course offerings in these programs oriented primarily toward the study of the elementary school child?
2. What types of professional and nonprofessional experiences have *counselor educators* had prior to their present positions?
3. What are the professional duties of the *counselor educators* in their present positions?

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4. What types of professional and nonprofessional experiences have *guidance enrollees* had prior to their entrance into these preparation programs?

5. What is the present status, in terms of level and kinds of preparation, of the *counselor enrollees* in these programs.

Procedure of the Study

Based on an Office of Education publication (1963) the names of institutions offering the master's or doctor's degree were the population used in this study. After eliminating specialized institutions that did not offer work in guidance, a *preliminary questionnaire* was mailed to the chief counselor educator in the remaining 575 institutions in order to identify those which offered at least a master's degree in elementary school guidance. Of these 575 institutions, 527, or 92 per cent, responded. Of this number, only 45 or 9 per cent, indicated that they offered a preparation program in elementary school guidance which they considered to be "significantly" different from their preparation program in secondary school guidance. These 45 programs represented institutions in 21 different states.

Based on the responses to the *preliminary questionnaire*, the appropriate number of each of the following instruments were mailed to the 45 institutions:

A. Institutional Data Blanks.
B. Personal Data Blanks for Counselor Educators.
C. Personal Data Blanks for Conselor Enrollees.

The chief counselor educator in each institution was responsible for the administration and return of these instruments. Of the 45 institutions originally indicating that they had a training program in elementary school guidance, 36 from 18 states participated fully in the study by providing complete and usable returns.

Content and Scope of Preparation Programs

The preliminary draft of the ACES standards for the preparation of secondary school counselors was used as a guide in constructing the *Institutional Data Bank*, which in turn was used in this study to determine the content and scope of these programs.

Identification, admission, and *curriculum*. In 15 of the 36 institutions some teaching experience was required before an applicant could be admitted to the program. Only five schools required teaching experience at the elementary school level. None of the institutions required previous guidance experience as a prerequisite for entering its program.

In 18 institutions specific requirements, in addition to those established for admission to graduate study, had been formulated. Usually these requirements included such things as personal interviews, personality tests, standardized test results, and teacher certification.

The person completing the *Institutional Data Bank* was asked to list the "required" courses which were geared specifically to the elementary school level. The following were listed:

Guidance in the Elementary School (21)
Guidance and Counseling Practicum (16)
Seminar in Child Development (13)
Elementary School Counseling Techniques (10)
Child Psychology (9)
Supervised Counseling and Field Experience (9)
The Exceptional and Atypical Child (8)
Individual Testing and Analysis (7)

Other courses dealing with testing or testing techniques, curriculum, and play therapy were required in five or fewer institutions.

Supervised experiences. All 36 institutions provided some type of laboratory experiences for their enrollees. All but two provided these experiences within the elementary school setting. More than 85 per cent of the institutions provided both on-campus and off-campus settings in which actual counseling under supervision experiences could be conducted.

An internship program was available in 13 of the 36 institutions. Five institutions required this experience for all of their enrollees, and in only three institutions was this a "paid" experience.

Placement and follow-up. Thirty-three institutions provided regular placement services for the graduates in elementary school guidance. Most often these services were provided through the university placement bureau or bureau of appointments.

Fourteen of the 36 institutions had conducted follow-up studies on their graduates in elementary school guidance. Of the 22 that had not conducted follow-up studies, 17 had not done so because their program was new and the first group of candidates would not be graduating until spring. In the other five institutions the number of graduates was considered too few to make such studies worth while.

Physical facilities and financial assistance. In nearly all of the institutions the physical facilities were considered to be at least adequate. Several indicated that although one-way vision screens were available for use in counselor preparation they were not being utilized. Instead, live and closed circuit television was being used. Two institutions were in the process of installing closed circuit television, primarily for the purpose of training future elementary school guidance workers.

In regard to financial assistance available to counselor enrollees in these institutions, nearly all provided some type of assistantship, fellowship, scholarship, or loan. However, few counselor enrollees were actually receiving this assistance.

Research provisions. More than 90 per cent of the institutions made provisions for the use of research tools and research techniques in their elementary school guidance preparation programs.

Other resources. Personal counseling services for counselor enrollees were provided in 34 of the 36 institutions. Most often these services were available through the counselor education staff or the university counseling service. Fifteen of the 36 institutions provided personal counseling services for the counselor education staff, usually through the university health center or private practitioners.

Financial assistance to attend professional meetings, with certain limitations and qualifications, were provided for the counselor education staff in 34 of the 36 institutions.

Aims and objectives. The Institutional Data Blank asked for information on the major objectives of the preparation program for elementary school guidance workers. The following statements represent the responses received from 24 institutions:

1. To encourage our people to discover creative and imaginative ways of identifying the needs of children; to encourage a desire to grow personally and professionally; and to provide both specialization in counseling and preparation for resource work in guidance.

2. To prepare competent diagnosticians and to train counselors to become adept at preventive practice in guidance.

3. To prepare personnel workers to serve in consultative capacities with parents, teachers, and children.

4. To prepare candidates who can function as diagnosticians and co-ordinators of services with limited background for giving treatment.

5. To prepare candidates to act as consultants to school personnel, to become team members for the potential growth of all children.

Personal and Professional Characteristics of Counselor Educators

The findings presented in the following paragraphs represent the responses of 132 counselor educators to the items on the *Counselor Educator Personal Data Blank.*

The professional ranks held by the 132 counselor educators at the time of the study were as follows: Instructor 16; Assistant professor 43; Associate professor 34; and Professor 39.

The counselor educators were asked to indicate both their major and minor course of study for the bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degree (110, or 83 per cent, held the doctor's degree). The responses to this item are presented in TABLE 1.

TABLE 2 shows the type of degrees, both master's and doctor's, the counselor educators had received.

Elementary school experience. Forty-six (35 per cent) of the 132 counselor educators had had some teaching experience in the elementary

TABLE 1

	Bachelor's		*Master's*		*Doctor's*	
Course of Study	*Major*	*Minor*	*Major*	*Minor*	*Major*	*Minor*
English	28	19	4	2	......	2
Psychology	26	16	17	36	15	26
Social Studies	23	16	4	6	......	4
Natural Sciences	18	......	......	......	......	......
General Education	15	18	......	10	......	9
Mathematics	9	11	2	......	......	......
Languages	5	15	......	......	......	......
General Science	......	15	......	......	......	......
Philosophy	......	8	3	......	......	......
Guidance & Counseling	......	......	59	13	52	4
Secondary Education	......	......	14	....	......	5
Educational Psychology	......	......	10	16	26	11
Educational Administration	......	......	8	6	3	......
Student Personnel Work	......	......	6	......	6	......
Other (less than 10 mentions)	......	...	5	6	8	15
Not indicated	......	7	......	37	......	34
Totals	132	132	132	132	110	110

6

school. The average length of elementary school teaching experience for these 36 was 4.1 years, obtained most often at the sixth grade level. More than 40 per cent of the total group had worked at the elementary school level in some other capacity than teaching. Elementary counselor, psychologist, and principal were mentioned most often.

TABLE 2

	Number	Per cent of total
Type of Master's Degree (N = 132)		
M.A. Degree	63	48
M.S. Degree	34	26
M.Ed. Degree	33	25
Other	2	1
Type of Doctor's Degree (N = 110)		
Ph.D. Degree	48	44
Ed.D. Degree	62	56

Secondary school experience. Nearly 75 per cent of the counselor educators had had some teaching experience in the secondary school. The average length of teaching experience was 5.0 years. More than 60 per cent of the counselor educators had worked at the secondary school level in some other capacity than teaching. Counselor, director of guidance, and principal were mentioned most often.

Certification status. At the time of the study 18 per cent of the counselor educators held a valid elementary school teacher's certificate, and 43 per cent held a valid secondary school teacher's certificate. Of the entire group, 36 per cent held some type of certification in either elementary or secondary school guidance. Other certifications most often held by the counselor educators were school psychologist and psychologist certificates.

Professional memberships. The counselor educators were asked to indicate the professional organizations in which they held membership. The five organizations in which the greatest percentage held membership, in desecnding order, were: (1) American Personnel and Guidance Association; (2) American Psychological Association; (3) Phi Delta

Kappa; (4) National Vocational Guidance Association; and (5) Association for Counselor Education and Supervision. Nearly all of the counselor educators belonged to *at least* one state professional organization. More than half belonged to two or more state professional organizations.

Teaching responsibilities. At the time of the study the average teaching load for the 132 counselor educators was 7.6 hours. However, the normal average teaching load for this group was 8.7 hours. The courses most often taught by these educators were Counseling, Principles of Guidance, and Seminars in Guidance.

Professional duties. The counselor educators were asked to indicate the professional duties, other than teaching, in which they were involved. Counseling of students ranked first, committee work second, and research third.

Personal and Professional Characteristics of Counselor Enrollees

The data presented in the following paragraphs were derived from the responses of 195 counselor enrollees to the *Personal Data Blank for Counselor Enrollees.* Those counselor enrollees who were working toward a master's or doctor's degree in elementary school guidance were selected by the person in charge of each program to complete the personal data blanks. Of the total number, 146 were women and 49 were men. The average age of the women was 33.4 years, and of the men 31.2 years. Sixty-one per cent of the enrollees were married, with the majority having two or more children.

Undergraduate preparation. More than 40 per cent of the enrollees had majored in Elementary Education, and nearly 60 per cent had minored in either English, Psychology, or Social Studies.

Over 75 per cent had received their teacher's certificate upon graduation from college. Of this group, 73 per cent received certification at the elementary school level, and 10 per cent for both the elementary and secondary school level.

At the time of the study, 85 per cent held a valid teacher's certificate. Of this group 74 per cent held this certification for the elementary school level, and 11 per cent for both the elementary and secondary school level.

Elementary school experience. More than 80 per cent of the enrollees had had some teaching experience at the elementary school level. The average length of teaching experience (obtained most often at the fourth grade level) was 5.7 years.

Of the 195 enrollees, 30 per cent had worked in or for an elementary school in some other capacity than teaching, usually guidance or administration, and 76 per cent had conducted or directed some type of organized activity for elementary school age youth, usually recreational activities or summer camp supervision.

Secondary school experience. Of the 195 enrollees, 26 per cent had taught in the secondary school, most often in the areas of Social Studies or English. Of the total group, 24 per cent had worked in or for a secondary school in some other capacity than teaching, usually guidance or coaching.

Present status. At the time of the study, 185 enrollees were working toward the master's degree, nine toward the doctor's degree, and one toward a specialist certificate in elementary school guidance. The average number of semester hours completed by those working toward the master's degree was 22, and for the doctor's degree, 68.

Of the 195 enrollees only 28, or 14 per cent, were receiving some type of grant or assistantship while working toward their degree. When asked what type of position they hoped to obtain upon completion of their program, 124 indicated elementary school guidance worker. The remainder indicated teacher-counselor, teacher, or some type of administrative position.

All indications favor an increased emphasis and concern for the preparation of elementary school guidance workers. Much attention is also being directed toward defining more clearly the function of guidance at the elementary school level. It is conceivable that the far-reaching advantages and the resulting impact of guidance in the elementary school has not begun to be realized. Experimental research on guidance at this level is lacking. The effects of individual and group counseling as well as vocational and educational planning are not yet known. Needless to say, the results of such research studies as those just suggested would contribute greatly in the selection of experiences to be included in programs of preparation for elementary school guidance workers.

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AN APPROACH TO PRACTICUM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELORS

BILL RAINES

If the preparation of secondary school counselors is just now coming of age, then certainly the field of elementary school guidance must be considered in its infancy. The problem of how best to prepare guidance counselors for work in the elementary school is a long way from being solved. Hill and Nitzschke (1961), after studying information from 154 masters degree programs, concluded that very few universities had planned programs for the preparation of elementary school guidance workers.

In spite of the lack of clarity regarding the direction of guidance in the elementary school, this writer assumes that the supervised practicum experience must be a vital part of the counselor's preparation. This article attempts to describe one approach with practicum which is being tried and seems to offer some possibilities which merit consideration.

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The Practicum

At Ohio University the practicum experience for elementary school counselors is one semester in length and includes three basic components:

A. Supervised experience in an elementary school working with children and teachers.
B. Weekly seminar sessions.
C. Weekly individual conferences with the counselor-educator.

A. *Experience in the School*

The counselor-in-training spends five hours per week working in an elementary school. This time is divided between classroom guidance activities and counseling.

1. Classroom activities. A portion of the counselor's time is spent with one classroom of children. In this way he is able to establish a continuing relationship with a group of children and he is able to see what a more comprehensive guidance program within one room can accomplish. The following are six examples of activities carried out in the classroom:

● Helping children to understand their own behavior. The pupils identify types of behavior which concern them or which they would like to understand better. The counselor then leads "pupil-centered" discussions about the possible causes of these behaviors and what might be done about them.

● Helping children to understand their peer relationships. Sociometric inventories are administered, after which the social structure of the class is discussed in general terms with the group. The group evaluates this structure of the class and discusses its implications.

● Helping children to understand more clearly their strengths and weaknesses. The purposes of the cumulative record system and the group testing program are discussed with the class.

● Helping students to understand the world of work. A special classroom unit is planned or activities are integrated into the regular instructional program which stimulate pupil awareness of the many aspects of the world of work which contribute to our lives. An effort is made to develop healthy attitudes toward all levels of work. Learning about all types of work is stressed rather than studying one particular area.

● Helping children to understand and deal with their emotions. Emotions such as fear, anger, and love are discussed by the class so that they may understand the role emotions play in their lives.

- Providing orientation for students coming into and preparing to leave the school.

If the counselor wishes, he may tie all of these activities into a self-appraisal unit for the pupils. In this respect autobiographies and completion sentences have been useful.

This classroom approach has been used at the fifth-grade level, and currently it is being tried also in grades four and six. In the past, the group sessions have required no more than one or two 30-minute sessions per week.

2. Counseling activities. Much of the counselor's time is devoted to individual counseling. Most of the interviews are an outgrowth of the classroom guidance activities. Pupils ask for conferences to discuss their peer relationships, to evaluate their progress in school, to learn what the cumulative record or group testing program has to offer them in the way of information, to discuss their interests and concerns about the world of work and their future in it, to discuss their emotions and behavior in an effort to be understood and to understand themselves, and discuss personal problems relating to both home and school. Almost all these interviews are developmental in nature involving many of the children within a classroom for one or two sessions rather than being more intensive counseling of a remedial type.

In addition, each counselor-in-training accepts a limited number of referrals from teachers who have children manifesting a more serious learning or behavior problem. The counselor will see these children once or twice a week on a continuing basis throughout as much of the semester as necessary.

Finally, counselors-in-training have the opportunity to do group counseling with six to eight students when it seems appropriate. For example, this past year a practicum student had four sessions with a group of six fourth graders who were unhappy with what they perceived as the teacher giving preferential treatment to a slow-learning classmate in their room.

When there is a qualified counselor employed in an elementary school, these experiences will be under his supervision. Until that time the counselor-educator is assuming the major responsibility for this supervision in cooperation with the building principal and the classroom teacher.

B. *Seminar Session*

A three-hour seminar session is scheduled for all practicum students each week. Usually the enrollment numbers from eight to ten, with elementary and secondary school counselors meeting together. One-half of the session each week is primarily a group counseling experience for the practicum students. The focus is on the counselors-in-training, their concerns and experiences, and how they feel about themselves as person and as counselors. A diary technique similar to the one referred to by Chenault (1962) is used in conjunction with the seminar.

The second part of the session is more structured and content-centered. Discussion focuses on assigned readings, recordings of counseling interviews, and topics selected and reported on by group members.

All seminar sessions are jointly conducted by two counselor-educators who share responsibility for practicum.

C. *The Individual Conferences*

Each week the practicum student has an individual conference with the counselor-educator. Experiences at the school, seminar session, and analysis of interviews recorded by the student serve as springboards for discussion in these conferences. Each counselor-educator works with only half of the practicum group in the one-to-one relationship and the group members make the division themselves. Although this is a supervisory relationship, an effort is made to approach a counseling relationship in these conferences.

The Rationale

The following premises represent the rationale upon whch this approach to practicum is based:

1. The guidance program in the elementary school should be primarily developmental rather than problem-centered. This implies that guidance services are for all children rather than merely for those experiencing adjustment or learning problems. Therefore, the practicum is structured so that a large portion of the counselor's time is not spent with children manifesting severe problems.
2. The classroom teacher plays the crucial role in elementary school guidance programs.
3. The elementary school counselor should spend a large part of his time helping teachers themselves implement the guidance program in the classroom.

If one accepts premises 2 and 3, it seems logical that during the practicum the enrollee will need to develop competencies in the areas in which he will want to help teachers. It is felt that he can best do this by conducting these activities himself.

4. The practicum student should have a background of successful teaching experience in the elementary school classroom. This would seem essential if the student is going to go into the elementary classroom and work with groups of children or help teachers develop those guidance skills.

5. The elementary counselor will spend a portion of his time working with a small number of students and parents who require assistance beyond what can be provided in the classroom. Therefore, working with a few referrals from other classrooms would seem to be an essential part of the practicum experience.

6. Counselor education is responsible self-development. This premise, which was presented so well by Arnold (1962), accounts for the major role group counseling and individual conferences play in this approach to practicum.

7. The elementary counselor has a unique function to perform: to see that there is an adequate program of planned activities to help all children increase their self-understanding and self-acceptance. In this respect he differs from a school psychologist doing primarily diagnostic child study work, a school social worker working primarily with families, or an elementary supervisor responsible primarily for improvement of the instructional program.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that the approach at Ohio University is one of searching for the most effective elements of an elementary school counselor's training program. Our task has just begun and it should be recognized that the program is only entering its fourth year; very little has been done in the primary grades; the structure of the practicum has been undergoing continuous revision based on feedback from those persons involved; and there is a need for experimental research to study the effectiveness of methods now being used.

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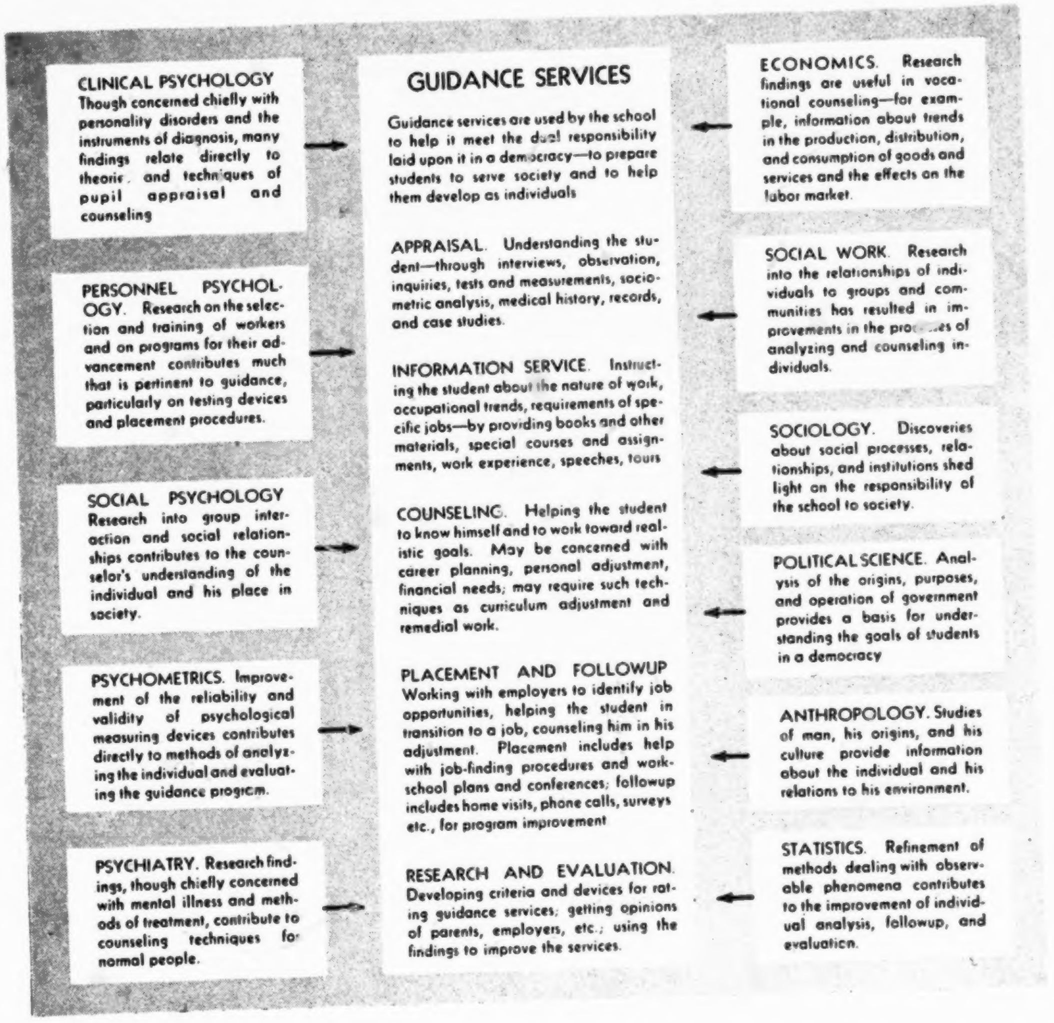
GUIDANCE DRAWS ON MANY FIELDS

SAMUEL KAVRUCK

More and more, educators are recognizing that the basic content of counselor education must become increasingly interdisciplinary. Persons who provide guidance services for others, whether those others be children or adults, need the wisdom which comes with a broad knowledge of the world of man. Just as every science, for its life and vigor, must contribute to and gain from other bodies of knowledge, so the guidance process gathers vitality by drawing upon all bodies of knowledge which



CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY Though concerned chiefly with personality disorders and the instruments of diagnosis, many findings relate directly to theories and techniques of pupil appraisal and counseling

PERSONNEL PSYCHOLOGY. Research on the selection and training of workers and on programs for their advancement contributes much that is pertinent to guidance, particularly on testing devices and placement procedures.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY Research into group interaction and social relationships contributes to the counselor's understanding of the individual and his place in society.

PSYCHOMETRICS. Improvement of the reliability and validity of psychological measuring devices contributes directly to methods of analyzing the individual and evaluating the guidance program.

PSYCHIATRY. Research findings, though chiefly concerned with mental illness and methods of treatment, contribute to counseling techniques for normal people.

GUIDANCE SERVICES

Guidance services are used by the school to help it meet the dual responsibility laid upon it in a democracy—to prepare students to serve society and to help them develop as individuals

APPRAISAL. Understanding the student—through interviews, observation, inquiries, tests and measurements, sociometric analysis, medical history, records, and case studies.

INFORMATION SERVICE. Instructing the student about the nature of work, occupational trends, requirements of specific jobs—by providing books and other materials, special courses and assignments, work experience, speeches, tours

COUNSELING. Helping the student to know himself and to work toward realistic goals. May be concerned with career planning, personal adjustment, financial needs; may require such techniques as curriculum adjustment and remedial work.

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOWUP Working with employers to identify job opportunities, helping the student in transition to a job, counseling him in his adjustment. Placement includes help with job-finding procedures and work-school plans and conferences; followup includes home visits, phone calls, surveys etc., for program improvement

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION. Developing criteria and devices for rating guidance services; getting opinions of parents, employers, etc.; using the findings to improve the services.

ECONOMICS. Research findings are useful in vocational counseling—for example, information about trends in the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services and the effects on the labor market.

SOCIAL WORK. Research into the relationships of individuals to groups and communities has resulted in improvements in the processes of analyzing and counseling individuals.

SOCIOLOGY. Discoveries about social processes, relationships, and institutions shed light on the responsibility of the school to society.

POLITICAL SCIENCE. Analysis of the origins, purposes, and operation of government provides a basis for understanding the goals of students in a democracy

ANTHROPOLOGY. Studies of man, his origins, and his culture provide information about the individual and his relations to his environment.

STATISTICS. Refinement of methods dealing with observable phenomena contributes to the improvement of individual analysis, followup, and evaluation.

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can contribute to guidance theory and procedures. This chart presents the five basic phases of the guidance process and gives an indication of how they draw upon the behavioral and social sciences to improve the quality of services to students.

The School Audiologist Detects Hearing Problems

PART 10

Present Status and Future Outlook

The present status and the future outlook for guidance in the elementary schools is discussed by four outstanding leaders in the field of guidance and personnel work. Each author has been involved in the elementary school guidance movement from its very beginnings.

Harold F. Cottingham surveyed and analyzed the positions held by persons who over the past several years have written on this subject. He lists seven different approaches and indicates by name the persons who have contributed to the approaches through their writings. The second phase of his paper deals with the ways in which these various writers appear to agree on the nature of elementary school guidance. This portion of his paper is followed by an examination of the research and reported evidence on prevailing practices in elementary school guidance. The final portion of his article deals with a discussion of several issues which appear to be confronting the field of guidance in the elementary school at this particular point in time. As a final conclusion, Cottingham proposes that some thought be given to implementing the mechanics by which a position paper at the national level could address itself to some of these issues in the field of elementary guidance.

Dr. Anthony C. Riccio, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, also points up the present status of the elementary school guidance movement. He discusses some preliminary steps that he feels ought to precede the establishment of new programs for the preparation of elementary guidance workers. His analysis of the literature also indicates a lack of agreement among persons who are advancing elementary school guidance services. He states: "For the present we will have to continue to operate on the level of faith, but by all means it should be a faith that is enlightened by reason."

What will elementary school guidance be like in the decades ahead? Dr. Anna R. Meeks of the State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland, states that elementary school guidance will be a positive force in the years ahead. In her presentation, Dr. Meeks discusses causes for underachievement, selective counseling, the team approach, combining roles, utilizing specialists and research contributions. She concludes her paper by projecting what we can expect in elementary school guidance in 1970.

"Trends in Elementary School Guidance" was written by Dr. Robert O. Stripling. His professional background and experiences place him in an excellent position to treat this particular topic. Although elementary guidance is a recent development, Dr. Stripling feels that the need for guidance and counseling in elementary schools is recognized and the time is right for refining and advancing the movement which has begun in a serious way.

GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL — A STATUS REVIEW

HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM

What has happened to point the finger at elementary guidance in the past ten or twelve years? It has been within that period we have seen the most remarkable concern for the movement. Certainly the success of guidance at the secondary level has suggested, "Why wouldn't it work at the elementary?" This was, apparently, a reasonable question. Another factor in its growth is that in psychological theory, we begin to realize that we must look back at the origin, or the cause of these problems, perhaps earlier than secondary school, in order to prevent them. For this reason it is only logical that guidance in the elementary school has come to the fore also. Certainly, early recognition of problem areas is necessary for early correction.

Along about this same time we also began to realize in psychological theory that there were many things that affected academic or intellectual

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performance, not the least of which is emotional or attitudinal development. Seemingly, children have other kinds of problems that may interfere with intellectual performance. Consequently, some sort of service, relationship, or activity, ought to be available to work on this problem. Further, I think we began to realize, although many of us would not verbalize this, and I'm not certain it could be documented in many places, that there were certain areas in which, perhaps, we have not been too successful. Such problems as juvenile delinquency, school dropouts, failures, and similar difficulties were also attributed to the school, although other social institutions were also responsible.

Along about this time, too, the question of the location or identification as well as the development of talent was cited as a function of the elementary school. There was also some question that we aren't developing boys and girls to their highest ability, that more could be done to develop many of them scholastically. So these are factors again that reflect, I believe, on the guidance emphasis in elementary schools.

We also have had a change in philosophy over a period of twenty years, in which we're now educating not only the intellectual child, or the academic individual, but the total individual. Certainly, we are as much concerned about his goals, his plans and needs, as we are about his academic performance, although I grant there may be a philosophic difference of opinion among us on this issue. A little clipping reminds us of this problem with which we're faced. This is from Oconomowoc, Wisconsin. Fourth graders at Greenland School were asked to tell what they would do if they ran the school. "If I ran the School," one youngster wrote, "we would not have Sho Sho Studies, Language or Seinens. We would not have test on spelling either." This represents a kind of problem youngster who is trying to communicate but who is doing it phonetically. Not too unsuccessfully, certainly, but not in the terms of good academic spelling standards.

Another reason for the emergence of guidance in the elementary school has been the awareness that teachers themselves perhaps wanted other resources. You and I have worked in schools where the teachers have said, "I would not admit I need help, I am a master of this situation, I can do all that needs to be done." I believe we now realize that no one of us has enough skill to handle all the needs of all the boys and girls with whom we come in contact. We all have limits. This need for resources also has pointed up the need for additional staff, facilities, material, and people to help children. And lastly, guidance in itself has gone through a period of change which we now accept; guidance is not picking up the pieces, not corrective, not remedial but developmental, preventive and continuous. This idea, if supported, suggests that elementary guidance is part of the total school, kindergarten through college.

Let's talk briefly about how people have looked at guidance in the elementary school over a period of years. It would be in order to point out the divergence of thinking, as well as agreement in the current situation with regard to viewpoints with which we are faced.

One of the earlier approaches might be called the (1) *Services Approach,* in which it was felt that we could merely transplant the so-called guidance services, applicable to the secondary school, down to the elementary school level, with some modification, of course. Some publications do not go into great detail as to what modifications might be in order. Illustrative of this point is an earlier book by Ray Hatch titled *Guidance Services in the Elementary School.* Incidentally, this book was recently revised under the same title. Another book, which also supported his concept, was one by Bernard, Zeran, and James called, *Guidance Services in the Elementary School.*

Another position endorses the (2) *"Guidance is good teaching"* concept. This was an early position, and is held by some authorities today. Illustrative of his point of view is the book by Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education,* which was revised and modified before being reissued about 1959. John Barr of Oregon completed a book in 1958 which took a somewhat similar position. Barr's book is titled, *The Elementary School Teacher and Guidance.*

A third approach might be called the (3) *mental health approach,* or the problem-centered approach, in which certain authors felt that elementary guidance should be focused on problems of elementary children. Illustrative of this point of view is the book by Detjen and Detjen, called, *Elementary School Guidance.* This is a very helpful book, but does not actually give an explanation of a basic position as to the nature of elementary guidance. A similar book by another man and wife team, Kowitz and Kowitz, also offers a similar approach. This book is entitled, *Guidance in the Elementary Classroom.* In both of these cases, the assumption seems to be that guidance is a mental health problem, or a phase of mental hygiene dealing with problems of children, rather than a designed program within the total school working for the needs of all children.

A fourth approach can be called the (4) *School psychologist or specialist* approach, in which a highly trained clinician or specialist is seen to be the primary resource person. Gertrude Driscoll's book, *Child Guidance in the Classroom* illustrates this position. Another publication is the Thayer report edited by Norma Cutts, and called, *School Psycholo-*

gists at Mid-Century. Both of these publications take the position that only psychologists would perform certain kinds of functions, therapy for example.

A fifth approach is called the (5) *human development* or *child study* approach, in which it is apparently assumed that knowledge of children from a background of developmental psychology is sufficient. This assumes application of this knowledge by teachers, specialists, administrators and others. Many of the approaches unfortunately do not explain how a whole school can or should implement the appropriate concepts; this limits their value as a philosophic or functional base from which to develop elementary guidance services.

The book by Ira Gordon, *The Teacher as a Guidance Worker,* supports this position. Prescott's book, *Helping Teachers Understand Children,* describing a child study program also illustrates this approach. A more recent book, *Guidance for Today's Children,* issued by the Los Angeles County Schools seems to be another statement endorsing the human development approach. This book is a revision of one that was done by the Los Angeles Schools back in 1948.

A sixth approach might be called a (6) *coordinated approach,* wherein as many activities are brought together, a total program is coordinated for the needs of all pupils. Nortinson and Smallenberg's book, *Guidance in Elementary Schools,* also takes this position. This appears to be a more *functional, more practical approach.* Ruth Strang, of Teachers College, has spoken in this vein. Johnson, Peterson, and Evraiff's book, *The Role of the Teacher in Elementary Guidance,* expresses a similar attitude.

The last approach is one that has been called an (7) *integrative* or *individualistic approach.* This has been promoted by Esther Lloyd-Jones, of Teachers College, in a little publication called, *Guidance in Elementary Education,* issued in 1958. It contains several interesting case studies of guidance in elementary education and points out various aspects of each problem case. It should be mentioned that the ASCD Yearbook, *Guidance and the Curriculum,* also stresses this plan. This publication is not limited to elementary schools, but takes a rather broad look at various levels of guidance stressing the fact that the guidance function should be integrated with the curriculum – both within and beyond the curriculum. An expression that best exemplifies this philosophy is the quotation, "Instruction is inseparable from guidance, but guidance is separable from instruction."

The next phase of this discussion will look at some of the ways in which these various authors, or writers, appear to agree on the nature of elementary guidance. We begin to approach what might be an answer to some of the basic questions as to objectives or functional aspects of guidance at this important level.

One of the basic principles in which most of the writers seem to agree is the fact that the functions involved must consist of a definite plan to help all pupils, teachers, and parents. This is important in that we are aiming our activities at not only boys and girls, but at teachers and administrators and the community. Thus, we have multi-consumer groups as beneficiaries of guidance work.

Another basic position held by many is that the teacher as well as the specialist is involved. Stated differently, guidance exists within and beyond the classroom; within and beyond the curriculum. The classroom teacher, undoubtedly, is a key person in the picture, although on occasion she may be supplemented by other resources in order to meet all the needs of all the boys and girls. Again this points up to a problem which some teachers are trying to face with varying degrees of success. Much has been said about creativity and imagination, and occasionally some of us want youngsters to conform to our concept of imagination. A new music teacher was drilling the class in songs that were being acted out as the children sang. After a number of songs in which the children hopped about and waved their arms to represent various subjects, she noticed that one small boy was doing very little acting. "You're not using your imagination, John," she said quite sharply. "The next song will be about flowers; I want you to act like one." John started out willingly enough, but half way through the song, obviously tired, he stopped suddenly and sat down. "John," the teacher called sternly, "get up at once, you're supposed to be a flower. You must have some imagination, now use it." "But I am," the youngster protested. "Then why are you sitting on the floor?" the teacher demanded. Looking up, John quietly explained, "My stem broke!"

A third concept, with which many writers agree, is that the problem areas around which elementary guidance seems to center are three: (1) The acceptance by a child of his own self-picture, or understanding and acceptance of self. (2) Satisfactory social relationships or interaction with other individuals. In a recent SRA pamphlet called, "Elementary Guidance, A Decade Ahead," Dr. Anna Meeks of Baltimore, emphasizes the human relations aspect of guidance. This seems to be a focal point of concern; helping youngsters relate to their peers and others. (3) The need for successful experiences in the academic school setting. How a child gets along in school with respect to intellectual attainments is very important.

A fourth area of agreement concerns both teachers and specialists. There seem to be two fundamental steps involved in elementary guidance with regard to the child himself. (1) Understanding children through child study, or analysis of pupil facts, and (2) using this data to help children. The second step is the helping process, often called at various levels, assistance, therapy, treatment, or remedy. These function together because it is difficult to help children without some previous data as to their needs and characteristics. We understand or assess, after which we help, just as we hope the doctor gets facts about us before he makes a diagnosis as a basis for treatment. These two steps are inherent in the writing of many of the authors in the field of elementary guidance.

A fifth point, in which some agreement is found, is that the needs of children in general, supported by local studies, determine what should be done for boys and girls in that area. One cannot buy tailor-made programs, since it is unwise to assume that services appropriate for one community automatically fit another. The diversity of pupil needs certainly necessitates a varied approach, both with the individual, and with the group situation. Our next point suggests that many authors agree that the teacher, herself, has a dual role, both as an instructor or teacher, and as a guidance person. But certainly, the methods and materials of instruction which deal wtih the skills and facts called for by society are somewhat different than the helping procedures built around the psychological needs of boys and girls which relate to their plans, their decisions, their value judgments, and their goals. These are two kinds of roles, both having interaction along with some overlap. The fact that each teacher does have a dual role is significant. This is more important, and probably more realized at elementary school level than upper level. It is difficult to get some college teachers to talk much about the personal problems of classroom students. They explain that this is not their responsibility. In effect they say, "You see your counselor, or you go to the dean. I don't discuss these problems." I think elementary teachers see much beyond this point since they see the whole youngster. Sometimes we may not see our differentiated roles in relation to different kinds of needs as revealed by children. This should not be an artificial plan to categorize or classify, nor an attempt to arbitrarily dichotomize functions.

Further, we find many authors stating that effective guidance requires trained people, a thorough special knowledge or special approaches by teachers, administrators, or specialists, regardless of title. The basic personal quality sought here is a value structure inherent of our own beliefs that will make the youngster want to emulate us, based on the assumption that youngsters do as we do, not as we say. It is doubtful if adults role play accepting a child or being permissive, since children probably see through this, maybe more so than some adults. This personal value structure is needed for a completely professional approach. We need to look at ourselves so that we can help others. Learning is a feeling experience as well as an intellectual one.

In addition to a number of common concepts on which many authorities seemingly agree, there is some evidence that a basic theory undergirding elementary school guidance is also emerging from the literature. Although this theory is far from complete, two or three features characterizing any basic statement can be drawn from a number of sources. Many writers agree that elementary guidance has as its purpose the modification of both pupil and teacher attitudes. Further, a number of writers have indicated that this objective is obtained by the provision of services to children directly, as well as to services to children indirectly, through teachers, specialists, and through the administration. As with basic guidance theory, elementary guidance seems to have as its purpose with children the modification of their behavior through a variety of individual and group experiences. Finally, it seems to be agreed that the elementary guidance workers, whether they be called consultant or counselor or merely a helping teacher, should not be expected to carry out such functions as teaching, discipline, administrative detail, and other routine tasks such as hall and yard duty, except under emergency conditions.

In this next portion of this review, it might be well to examine some of the research and reported evidence on prevailing practices in elementary school guidance. This brief review of current practices will be presented under two headings, namely, organization and philosophy, and functions of elementary guidance personnel. As a source of data for this particular portion of these remarks, two studies in particular were drawn upon in some detail. One of these is in published form and is called, "Guidance in the Elementary School," by Louise Eckerson and Hyrum M. Smith, a series of articles which appeared summer of 1962 in *School Life*, the official journal of the United States Office of Education. The second study serving as a source of data for these statements is a research report being developed by Rebecca McKeller, a graduate student at Florida State University who has made a thorough study of the functions and philosophy of a sample of the half-time elementary school counselors in this country. Miss McKellar's study is as yet incomplete, but will be available later this year.

In looking at practices which characterize the organizational patterns and philosophic bases for elementary school guidance programs, several prevailing trends are reported by Eckerson and Smith. They indicate in many instances, based on some twenty-four elementary school guidance programs, that elementary guidance services are frequently a part of a broader pupil personnel program. This pupil personnel program is designed to serve all the children in that particular community. The leadership for guidance organization appears to center on a consultant or a guidance person who coordinates a variety of activities involving the school staff, as well as resource personnel within the school and community. Furthermore, it is assumed that the teacher is a vital part of this total plan of action in that she applies guidance principles within her classroom.

McKellar, in her study, sought information about the organization of guidance activities within schools served by elementary counselors. It might be pointed out here that Miss McKellar's study involved 183 half-time (or more) counselors in 20 states. The counselors in Miss McKellar's study serve in a single school, or in about half of the cases, two schools or more. Only 14 of the sample were actually coordinators or supervisors, but instead were designated as counselors under a guidance person or a school administrator.

One feature of Miss McKellar's study centered around an attempt to determine from the literature certain basic principles of guidance in elementary schools which might serve as a basis for actual practice in the field. In comparing the organizational practices found in sample schools, Miss McKellar reported several practices which seemed to be quite compatible with the guidance literature at the elementary school level. Specifically, the schools that seemed to hold a philosophy most comparable to principles found within the guidance literature as expounded by leaders in the field used the following organizational policies: the use of a guidance council or committee to develop procedures leading to plans and objectives, the development of guidance functions around periodic research on pupil needs, the development of guidance objectives through cooperative activity involving faculty, administration and guidance people, and finally, the presence of an educational climate which indicated an acceptance by a majority of the school staff of the guidance viewpoint and a willingness to utilize guidance services. As a specific question as to the focal point for organization of elementary school guidance, Miss McKellar asked a direct question on this issue. She discovered that only some 26% of the elementary counselors saw the teacher as a primary agent for implementing elementary guidance, while almost 70% of the elementary counselors saw guidance as a coordinated process involving a variety of school and community personnel.

Moving into the area of functions carried out by elementary guidance personnel, one again finds a lack of solid research on which to base evidences of ongoing practice. Granted that many surveys of opinion and conceived roles of the elementary guidance person have been conducted, there is still a dearth of carefully designed studies which can serve as a foundation for any clearcut trends on the actual duties carried out by a large number of elementary school counselors working half-time or more.

Before citing actual functions carried out by elementary school guidance workers, it might be well to emphasize that Smith and Eckerson suggest that a variety of factors determine these functions. This may account for the lack of terminology, as well as the difficulty in clarifying these functions as typically carried out. Very possibly the existence of these factors will make it difficult for some time to develop any sort of commonly accepted job description of the elementary school counselor. Such a condition may be well and good, actually. Some of these factors which have a direct bearing on the kind of responsibility being carried out by elementary giudance counselors are: the attitude and philosophy of the administrative staff, the extent to which other functions and resource units are available in the community, the type of neighborhood and home environment in which the school is located, and the policies followed by the school system with respect to counselor-pupil ratios. In addition, such elements as the education, work experience and personal qualifications of elementary school guidance persons cannot be overlooked.

Referring again to the study carried out by Miss McKellar, we find that she grouped the functions carried out by elementary school guidance workers into four categories, namely: Those related to children; those related to teachers, functions related to parents, and general administrative responsibilities. Discussing these in order, I would like to report a few of Miss McKellar's findings which are descriptive of functions performed by her elementary counselor sample. An attempt was made to determine the actual functions carried out by counselors in each category. Specifically, with regard to helping children, four functions seem to be most commonly performed: counseling with individual pupils for better self-understanding, administering tests to individual pupils, working with pupils who need special help in remedial or emotional situations, and fourthly, the orientation of new pupils entering the school during the year.

In the area of teacher assistance, elementary school counselors in this study indicated that they were most frequently occupied with holding individual teacher conferences to improve teacher understanding of pupil needs and characteristics, in helping teachers identify pupils who need special help, helping all teachers to accept and understand children, interpreting pupil data and test results with individual and groups of teachers, and working with individual teachers on questions relating to student management and behavior change. In the area of parent services, most frequently listed functions were as follows: making direct contact with parents at invitation of the classroom teacher or principal, acting as the liaison person between the home and the school, arranging referrals to out-of-school agencies for physical or psychological diagnosis of the child with difficult problems, and helping parents in matters of student understanding and management. Needless to say, one very common function was that of interpreting pupil data to parents. With respect to general and administrative functions, counselors were involved in a coordination of all guidance functions in the school, responsibility for organizing and keeping significant pupil data, maintaining an adequate supply of guidance literature and materials for teachers and parents, planning and administering the school testing program and assistance in the placement of pupils in the proper classes.

Referring again to the Eckerson and Smith study of twenty-four guidance programs, we find a similarity in functions performed although the functions listed are not categorized as in the McKeller study. Eckerson and Smith, for example, indicate that elementary school guidance consultants are quite often occupied with testing and observing children who were having educational or emotional difficulties, direct counseling with children whose problems suggest that school counseling would be beneficial, and consulting with teachers, principals and parents to help them better understand normal children and children with problems. Further, elementary guidance workers in this study spend considerable time in referring children needing intensive diagnosis to specialists or community agencies available, providing in-service training for teachers in the area of child development and learning, along with assistance in administering, scoring and interpreting test results. Some elementary guidance consultants were also occupied with programs in group guidance involving areas such as personal problems, occupational orientation and study habits; others were responsible for helping children with physical needs such as clothes, food and hearing aids; others reported time spent in interpreting the guidance program to parents and community organizations and in the conduct of research and evaluative studies dealing with the effectiveness of the program.

The final portion of this paper is devoted to the discussion of several issues which appear to be confronting the field of guidance in the elementary school at this particular moment. These issues, rather than being derived from research or other opinion studies, have come to the attention of the writer through his experience, examination of the literature, and a consideration of current developments in elementary school guidance through commissions, special studies and miscellaneous sources.

One of the issues with which we are faced at the moment appears to be the structural pattern which should serve as a model for the development of elementary guidance services within a school or a school system. The heart of this issue seems to be whether or not the focal point is the teacher, a roving consultant serving several schools, or a counselor within each school or a particular assigned group of schools. Naturally, some would argue that we should not look for any sort of structural design which might fit the elementary school, but rather think in terms of functions, letting each school develop its own pattern of structured activities.

Another rather basic area of disagreement centers on the nature and characteristics of elementary school guidance as differentiated from guidance at other school levels. Granted that guidance at any school level has yet to produce its own solid foundation stones, nevertheless, some authorities feel that we have not yet agreed in the guidance profession on characteristics and dimensions of guidance in the elementary school, whether it be a part of the total guidance scheme or not. To date, no one has come up with a position statement, a basic theory or a series of purposeful directions for elementary school guidance that is acceptable to many of those in the field. Perhaps we will get some answers to this question when the Anna Meeks' study sponsored by the American Guidance Foundation, activated in 1961, comes up with its final report in some three years.

Related to this question of a proper foundation for elementary school guidance, is the relationship of guidance at this level to other special services which come under the total personnel tent. The specific services with which elementary guidance is most often confused and perhaps compared, are those of school psychology and school social work. In many schools, considerable doubt exists as to the distinct roles of so-called specialists in each of these three disciplines. Other professional problems also arise when we raise the question of whether or not the elementary guidance consultant is primarily a therapist or merely a diagnostician. Another similar question hinges on the administrative leadership role of the elementary guidance consultant, whether he be an administrator, that is, a line officer, or merely a staff individual having a consulting or advising role. We have yet to see, I believe, the proper merging of leaders in elementary education and leaders in the guidance movement who must ultimately get together to resolve some of these questions surrounding elementary school guidance. The final professional difficulty focuses on organizational affiliation of elementary guidance people. For example, in the McKellar study referred to above, only one-fourth of the elementary school counselors were members of the American School Counselors Association. Very likely, elementary school counselors hold their primary membership in such organizations as the Association of Childhood Education, or perhaps the American Psychological Association, in a few instances.

One issue which is of vital concern to many individuals is that of clarifying the proper functions which should accrue to the elementary guidance worker. Although we are conducting several research studies in an attempt to determine the most appropriate function in the light of pupil and community needs, there still is no agreement whereby the ideal role and the practices in the field appear to be compatibly related. Eckerson and Smith raise the question whether or not we should seek too much commonality of function when there needs to be considerable variability in the light of local school factors. We are not yet sure either with any basis for generalization, the type of services needed by the teacher and administrator as well as the parent in the community. Eckerson and Smith referred to the chief function being identification and prevention, yet other authorities would go further and speak of remediation, treatment or even therapy. A final aspect of this role and function question is whether or not our training programs would wait on a job analysis of the actual duties required of elementary school guidance personnel. We are training people at the moment, even though we have no basic guidelines for developing these programs other than the best judgment of counselor educators, elementary educators, and child development specialists.

This question naturally leads us to one of training, which represents another area of difference in elementary school guidance. In a study by George Hill of Ohio State University, a year or two ago, he discovered that a majority of programs in this country did not clearly differentiate elementary guidance training programs in counselor education from those designed to prepare secondary school counselors. Another question in the training field would seem to be to what extent a common core of academic courses or individual experiences underlies the preparation of the child development specialist, the school psychologist, and the elementary guidance consultant. Furthermore, I do not believe that we are in complete agreement yet as to whether or not the elementary guidance person is a generalist or a specialist. Some recent proposals have suggested that we should eventually seek a vertical hierarchy in which there were two types of guidance workers, the general practitioner or the generalist, as opposed to the more specially trained and perhaps more highly trained specialist who was more akin to what is referred to in the Wrenn report as the counselor. On the other hand, a variation of this approach might be to develop horizontal variations so that the question of status or hierarchy might not become a threatening one.

The last question we must raise moves into the area of personnel who are to do elementary guidance work. We have touched upon this issue already, namely, whether the teacher is the focal point or whether a specialist in the area of school psychology, school social work, or guidance is the key figure. An aspect of this question, of course, is the title of the individual, as well as his type of qualifications for his role. Studies by Hart and by Martinson have suggested that we are pretty well agreed on the ideal role of the counselor, yet to date I do not believe that we have enough studies of practice to see whether or not our ideal is within reach or is perhaps too idealistic. Further, there is the ever-present question of terminology wherein we are confronted with a proposal by Patouillet who proposes the term, "child development consultant" which embraces the guidance counselor, the school psychologist, as well as the school social worker. This, however, is not acceptable to some who feel it would be impossible to reach agreement among these disciplines on this terminology. Finally, a basic aspect of the question raised is whether or not the teacher can be equally effective both as a guidance person and in her fundamental, traditional role of instruction. How realistic is it to assume that a teacher should carry this dual role?

As a final conclusion, the writer would like to propose that some thought be given to the implementing mechanics by which a position paper at the national level could address itself to some of these issues in the field of elementary guidance. Such a well-developed position paper sponsored by national organizations and carried out by representatives from elementary education, guidance and related disciplines could certainly examine some of the fundamental concerns with which we are faced. Hopefully, such a group could offer a theoretical basis within the broad context of a guidance philosophy, could describe dimensions and some of the essential characteristics that should identify elementary school guidance, and thirdly, point up some of the unresolved issues with which we are yet faced, and finally, could perhaps propose some next steps by which a unified theory of elementary guidance could be developed.

ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL GUIDANCE: ITS PRESENT STATUS

Anthony C. Riccio

Now that organized guidance programs have been established in most secondary schools, many persons interested in the advancement of the guidance movement are turning their attention to the elementary school. In the past five years, over a dozen textbooks, yearbooks, and national reports have focused on this. Professional organizations, textbook writers, and other persons who advocate organized guidance services at the elementary-school level generally point to three major arguments to support their position: (1) Since guidance services are valuable, they should be available to students at all educational levels. (2) Guidance is a continuous process which should start early in the individual's life so that he may have the assistance of qualified guidance personnel as he begins to formulate patterns of behavior that will regulate much of his activity throughout his school career and later in life. (3) It is to the good of our society to identify talented pupils as early as possible so that they may be encouraged to pursue academic excellence — especially those kinds that are vital to our national defense.

In view of this widespread interest, it is probable that a number of institutions of higher learning will attempt to establish preparation programs for elementary-school guidance workers. The purpose of this paper is to examine some of the literature pertinent to the questions logically preceding the establishment of a training program, and to consider some of the problems attendant to the establishment of such a program. No attempt will be made here to specify the kind of course work that should be required of students who wish to become elementary-school guidance workers, or the specialized functions of the guidance person at the elementary level.[1]

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[1] For a discussion of selected factors that determine the nature of guidance services at the elementary, secondary, and college levels, *see* Anthony C. Riccio and Joseph H. Maguire, "Interdependence of Guidance Services at the Various Levels," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals,* May, 1961, *45,* 136-42.

What do we know about the elementary guidance-preparation programs that are now in existence? There have been few studies on the nature of elementary-school guidance programs. The most recent project on a national scale has been reported by Hill and Nitzschke. They questioned the persons in charge of 154 masters' and 44 doctoral programs concerning the nature of their elementary-school guidance-preparation programs. The institutions surveyed were the ones that *claimed* to have graduate programs in elementary-school guidance. Of the personnel who responded to the questionnaire, only one-third of the masters' people and one-tenth of the doctoral people indicated that there was a specific difference between the preparation programs for elementary- and secondary-school guidance workers. Many respondents commented that they were exploring the problem in question; a large group of others believed that there should be no difference between elementary- and secondary-preparation programs. It was further noted that of 1,104 course titles listed by respondents only 76 contained words or phrases which evidenced a primary interest in the elementary school or in the child of elementary-school age. Employing academic caution, they concluded that "the field of elementary-school guidance preparation is not yet well defined."[2]

What are the opinions of authorities and practitioners concerning what ought to be the nature of the guidance services performed in the elementary school? A number of individuals and associations have examined elementary-school guidance services. Most interesting, perhaps, has been Cottingham's analysis of leading elementary-school guidance textbooks to determine prevailing conceptions of elementary-school guidance. Cottingham lists six distinct points of view: (1) elementary-school guidance services are simply the downward extension of secondary-school guidance services; (2) guidance is synonymous with effective teaching; (3) guidance consists of the classroom application of sound principles of mental hygiene; (4) guidance services should be provided by specialists – e.g., school psychologists, whose training clearly differentiates them from the classroom teacher; (5) guidance is primarily comprised of such activities as case conferences and other child-study approaches; and (6) guidance is the co-ordinated effort to bring all of the resources of a school system and community to bear upon a given child to help him achieve optimal self-actualization.[3]

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[2] Hill, E., and Nitzschke, D. F. "Programs of Preparation for Elementary School Guidance Workers." Report to the National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1961.

[3] Cottingham, Harold F. "Guidance," *Grade Teacher,* January, 1959, *76,* 56 and 91.

Obviously, there is much that overlaps in these conceptions of elementary-school guidance services. The differences are generally a matter of emphasis. Nevertheless, it is clear that there is no appreciable amount of agreement among authorities as to just what the primary emphasis in the provision of elementary-school guidance services ought to be.

Practitioners appear to be closer together in their thinking than are the authorities. It has been reported that most elementary-school guidance workers believe that their major tasks in the next decade will be working with teachers and parents and *co-ordinating* the guidance facilities in the school and community. The same guidance workers reported that at present they devote almost 100 per cent of their time to the guidance program, but they spend only one-fourth to one-third of their time working with individual students.[4]

State departments of education have also taken a turn at examining the functions of the elementary-school guidance worker. For example, in attempting to determine whether the same certificate should be valid from kindergarten through high school, the Advisory Committee on Guidance Counseling and Testing to the State Board of Education in Minnesota has recommended that preparation programs in elementary- and secondary-school guidance should parallel each other, but that the elementary program should place an emphasis on group dynamics, learning difficulties, human growth and development, and case-work methods.[5] The educational experience — both course work and practice teaching — of the elementary-school counselor, the committee believed, should also be at the elementary rather than the secondary level. It should be kept in mind that there are few states that have special certification programs for elementary-school guidance workers at this time.

How should we proceed toward the establishment of elementary-school guidance-preparation programs? Any attempt to establish a preparation program should begin with a consideration of the assumptions which will undergird both the objectives of the program and the specific activities intended to lead to the realization of these objectives. Three assumptions appear to me to be warranted. First, the aims of guidance and the aims of education are the same. Both are concerned with the optimal development of the individual's potential so that he may lead a more satisfying life and make his best contribution to the welfare of society. Second, elementary-school guidance programs ought to be staffed by specially trained people who perform, in a rational and predetermined manner, services which cannot ordinarily be performed by personnel who lack the requisite preparation. Finally, there must be a definite and demonstrable relationship between the work that elementary-school guidance workers will be expected to do in the school setting and the graduate program which prepares them to do this work.

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[4] *SRA Guidance Newsletter*, February, 1961, p. 2.

[5] "Elementary School Guidance in Minnesota." Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minnesota State Department of Education, 1961.

An important problem to be considered before establishing preparation programs for elementary-school guidance workers is the selection of counselor educators to staff the programs. It would be unrealistic at this point to suggest that the counselor educators be persons trained to educate elementary-school guidance workers, since there are so few of these persons. Counselor educators in new programs for elementary-school guidance workers must obviously be drawn from the current number of counselor educators as well as from counselor educators-in-training. If it is necessary for an individual to have experience in doing what he is training others to do, the counselor educator who assumes the responsibility for preparing elementary-school guidance workers should gain at least a modicum of knowledge of what guidance work in the elementary school is like. Perhaps the best effort that can be made by counselor educators *at this time* is to attempt to establish programs that are related to what elementary-school guidance workers are currently doing or will be expected to do in the foreseeable future. This would necessitate questioning teachers, counselors, and co-ordinators who are currently working in elementary-guidance programs. They should be asked to state ways in which their preparation courses have helped them in the work they are now doing, as well as ways in which their programs have been inadequate.

If one conclusion can be drawn from this examination of the literature, it is that although many persons are writing and talking about elementary-school guidance services, few of these persons are in agreement. There are few successful practices toward which a counselor educator can look immediately for assistance in establishing an elementary-school guidance training program. For the present we will have to continue to operate on the level of faith, but by all means it should be a faith that is enlightened by reason.

ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE IN THE DECADES AHEAD: A POSITIVE FUNCTION RATHER THAN A CORRECTIVE FORCE

ANNA R. MEEKS

An American School Counselor Association committee report on elementary school guidance, released in 1959, noted as significant "the recognition of guidance as an integral part of the whole educational program, serving as a positive function rather than a corrective force." Such a concept of guidance may well determine the direction in which elementary guidance will develop.

The report characterized elementary school guidance as global in its activities and concerned with the *developing* child. This point of view removes the emphasis from mopping-up activities and places it upon prevention of problems and positive approaches to personal school adjustment. A team approach will enable the school to gain understanding of each child. The school then can gear its instructional program to take advantage of interests and strengths and to help the child overcome weaknesses. Effective pupil study will make school planning more valid.

With the emphasis on problems that prevent learning, the school of the future will provide more information about the children entering the first grade. Schools will attempt to discover the level of development in the physical, social, and emotional areas, as well as the degree of reading readiness. Some inventory, such as Katherine Banham's *Maturity Level for School Entrance and Reading Readiness,* will be used to help determine which children are mature enough to enter the first grade. Many questions in this area remain to be answered, and research will be a vital function of elementary guidance.

Causes of Underachievement

The need to discover why boys begin underachieving in grade 1, whereas girls may reach grade 9 before serious underachievement is evident, was pointed up by M. C. Shaw's and J. T. McCuen's study, "The Onset of Underachievement in Bright Children," published in the *Journal of Educational Psychology*. If the cause lies in immaturity, the school must have evidence of the maturity levels of pupils entering grade 1. It is highly possible that the legal age for school entrance for boys may

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need to be raised a full year. It is also possible that the level of maturity of some children will be such that a two-year primary experience will be sufficient.

Effective pupil study calls for observation in many areas of behavior, continuous study of developmental records and interviews with parents. Records may be used effectively if they are comprehensive enough and if they are organized so that an analysis can be made with reasonable effort. The school that is endeavoring to use pupil study as an effective means of improving every child's learning opportunities will co-ordinate the services of teacher, counselor, and school nurse. Through team effort, records that are truly developmental will be be provided. Such an approach will call for in-service training.

A counselor is needed for the school that is trying to provide early, continuous and effective pupil study; that is trying to contribute pertinent research data as a basis for improved learning situations; and that is trying to assist pupils with personal and school adjustment problems.

Selective Counseling

The typical elementary school of 1970 will have at least one full-time, professionally prepared counselor on the staff. This counselor will be able to devote about 60 per cent of his time to work with children.

The remaining time will be devoted to essential work with teachers and parents.

Writing on "Realities in the Guidance Programs in Elementary Schools" in *The School Counselor,* Dr. Wilson says: "The work with teachers is of paramount importance. . . . Workshops with teachers in the various grade levels will provide opportunity for a consideration of the problems of particular age levels and offer opportunity for helping teachers better to understand the reasons underlying children's behavior, the kinds of help best able to meet these needs, and materials utilized in working with the children. . . . The counselor will find his energies constantly drawn upon to meet the almost never-ending pleas of parents for help in understanding their children."

There will be too little time for counseling children with adjustment problems. The counselor will be somewhat selective in accepting children for counseling. There is some indication that research may offer help in determining whether a pupil will profit from counseling.

The future counselor will use techniques similar to play therapy or other spontaneous creative activities. The counselor's office, with a generous supply of manipulative toys, construction toys, toys that can be abused, telephones, dollhouses, and miniature classrooms, will offer the child a chance to relieve tensions and express feelings. He may begin to think about his relations with others in school or at home.

Sometimes a child may be unable to talk directly to the counselor, but may give clues to his problem as he holds a telephone conversation with the counselor or an imaginary friend, or as he arranges a dollhouse or plays with hand puppets. The future counselor will make no attempt to use toys to diagnose problems or to do therapy. He will, however, recognize that there is a legitimate use for toys in the counselor's program.

Group activities, such as sociodrama and role playing, will provide indirectly counseling for children who need to effect changes in behavior with their peers. Group counseling will furnish an opportunity for a child to discuss his problems with other children having similar problems. This technique will take advantage of group dynamics to compound the effect of counseling.

Group counseling will be increasingly used, not as a timesaver, but as a more effective approach to helping children gain greater self-understanding. Several pilot projects in group counseling have been in process this past year, mostly in the area of underachievement. Results have been encouraging. One research project is attempting to evaluate group versus individual counseling.

In another project, group counseling has been used effectively with the members of an ungraded intermediate class, all of them underachievers who had exhibited poor adjustment to the school situation. Much research is needed and a great deal of in-service education in group counseling must be provided. However, group counseling probably will be widely used by counselors in the near future.

The Team Approach

Future elementary school guidance will be characterized by a coordinated team approach to pupil services. An inevitable outcome of improved pupil study will be a recognition of the need for specialized services for pupils with unmet needs.

In spite of fine curriculum offerings, good grouping policies, and the best possible school climates, some children will need highly specialized help from reading specialists, speech therapists, social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists if they are to have a fighting chance in school. In work with these children the emphasis will be upon preventing serious difficulties in adjustment and learning. Obviously, some problems will exist when the child enters school, and some problems will develop because of home and community factors.

Many schools now using the team approach schedule regular meetings of a team made up of principal, counselor, school social workers, the school nurse, the teacher whose pupil needs help, and in some instances the school psychologist. The school and its social worker exhaust every possibility before referring the child to psychological services. However, the psychologist is available as a consultant at any time.

If a referral is made, the school is expected to plan a case conference when the psychologist is ready to make a report. Such a conference is used to interpret the child's problem and to assign responsibility for carrying out recommendations made by the psychologist. It is a two-way sharing, not a handing down of directives. The psychologist and the school social worker have the benefit of a psychiatric consultant or a therapist who is a member of the school staff. The work of such a team allows elementary guidance to serve all children through a positive and developmental approach. New York City's successful Higher Horizons Program is eloquent testimony of the efficacy of such an approach.

Combining Roles

It has been suggested that schools combine all three roles — guidance counselor, psychologist, and school social worker — under one label, such as child development consultant. Each child development consultant would have completed a two-year graduate program that included courses in guidance, psychology, social work, administration, and curriculum. He would be responsible for all the guidance needs of his share of the children in the school.

This proposal seems to be based on some glaring and dangerous misconceptions. Can any one consultant acquire all the concepts and skills needed to care for all the guidance needs of children? Are there not basic differences in underlying philosophy and rationale between these specialties that may result in conflict if one person assumes all roles?

Conferring with two other consultants whose basic preparation is the same as one's own seems very much as if "I, myself, and me" are in conference. Will such a proposal result in fewer overlapping roles or will it create an unbalanced program of services, with each consultant stressing only those aspects of his role for which he feels prepared? Can a change of labels eliminate misunderstandings about roles?

Is not the school counselor responsible for the whole child? Is a doctor less interested in you as a whole person because he recommends you to a surgeon or to a psychiatrist when your needs call for specialized services? Using supporting services to make the counselor's work more effective does not mean we are dividing up the child. The co-ordinated team can realize all the objectives of a developmental approach without sacrificing the depth of understanding and skill that specialization brings. A program of supportive services that operates from a central staff with counselors serving as school staff members can be a highly co-ordinated and co-operative function. It can offer ample opportunity for principals and teachers to participate in making and executing plans for the benefit of children with unmet needs and interests.

Utilizing Specialists

In contrast to the suggestion that all roles be combined in one, the writer would propose that the counselor should not work with children who have problems that require changes in home environment, or the services of community agencies, or psychotherapy. Instead, these children should be referred to the specialists best able to help them. The counselor should work with children whose problems are essentially school-centered and who are carefully selected on the basis of the likelihood that they will benefit from counseling. More and more, the counselor of the future will emphasize how opportunities for learning can be improved through greater self-insight.

Actually, the counselor could solve many personal problems if he concentrated on counseling underachieving pupils. Since counseling pupils is only one of the counselor's functions, however, he will continue to emphasize the orientation and in-service education of teachers and also the importance of his conference role with parents.

Research Contributions

From time to time the writer has referred to the research contributions that a counselor might make. Any meaningful attempt to do research calls for an improved basis for assigning counselors and for a longer work year. One counselor per five hundred pupils is a maximum pupil-counselor ratio if the counselor is to find time for research.

If the counselor is to make a study of all pupils entering the first grade, it is imperative that he be a twelve-month employee. Administering an inventory such as the Banham scale is a time-consuming task, but misuse of the pupil's time because we admit him too soon, or hold him too long in the primary grades, may be a costly practice in terms of human resources. The time and money spent on such a program are very little if they help children make greater use of their potentialities. Failure to provide such help exacts a toll in personal development that we can ill afford.

Pupil study suggests a need to develop a more adequate supply of persons with the professional preparation and personal qualifications required for successful work with guidance specialists.

The report of the ASCA committee reminds us that the functions that comprise elementary school guidance services determine or define what the counselor's preparation should be. He serves as *consultant* to parents, principal, teachers, and other members of the school staff. He acts as a *liaison person* between the school and the resources of the community. He provides services to pupils as an effective *counselor.* He applies efficient pupil-study techniques, and he contributes to the school's research program. These numerous functions suggest a need to think of counselor preparation in terms of depth of understanding in areas relating to child development, personality development, theories of learning, of counseling, human relations, goals of guidance, curriculum, school administration, and the organization of the school's guidance services.

The counselor needs understanding, specialized skills, and techniques in many areas if he is to function effectively. His professional preparation should include at least thirty hours and preferably sixty hours of graduate work. Besides courses specifically designed for school counselors, graduate study should include work in human growth and development, psychology, anthropology, sociology, statistics, and research.

The counselor must have good personal qualifications. He will be selected for his emotional stability, his ability to work with people, his scholastic aptitude, and the depth and variety of his interests.

Future counselors will be expected to present some teaching experiences as a background for their work with teachers. Five years of superior teaching will be generally required.

Certification probably will be given by the university or college that prepares the counselor, rather than obtained through courses presented by the department of education. The university will be responsible for selecting students who can meet personal qualifications as well as the required academic standards.

Development by 1970

What can we expect in 1970? Certainly an organized program of guidance in most schools, with at least one fully qualified counselor. Emphasis will be placed on prevention of problems through attention to the developmental needs of all children. Improved techniques of pupil study and truly developmental records will make educational placement more effective and will allow teachers to gear instructional procedures more closely to the individual needs of children.

Counseling in the school will be primarily centered on problems as they affect the learning situation. The counselor will be a specialist in such problems and will refer children with adjustment difficulties that present deep-seated emotional problems.

The counselor will contribute to the school's research program. Policies relating to grouping, placement, promotion, grading, and even curriculum will be tested in research projects.

There will be a team of specialists to support the school's guidance program. All guidance services will be co-ordinated to obtain maximum efficiency.

To insure maximum benefits from the program of elementary guidance services, fully qualified professional counselors will be employed on a twelve-month basis. This arrangement will allow the counselor to make fairly complete studies of all incoming first-graders so that he can plan educational experiences for them on a sound basis.

Then we will really be working toward the goal: "Adequate Coverage of the Needs of Every Child."

Is this asking too much?

TRENDS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

ROBERT O. STRIPLING

In the broadest sense of the term, guidance had its beginnings in the earliest stages of the development of culture. The child-rearing activities of the family, tribe, or village society included procedures designed to contribute to the development of each child's character and his capacity for coping with life, in addition to preparation in specific, economically oriented skills. It has only been in recent decades, with the staggering increase in the *rate* of social, economic, and technological change, that guidance as a deliberate and conscious process has emerged. Specifically, the guidance movement emerged from:

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The development of measurement: Sir Francis Galton and others became interested in the scientific measurement of human characteristics in the latter half of the last century. In the early part of the present century, Alfred Binet developed an intelligence scale. The need to make more effective use of manpower during World War I gave further impetus to the development of standardized testing instruments.

The development of testing contributed significantly to the guidance movement in our rapidly growing public school system. Standardized tests of ability, aptitude, achievement, and interest gave teachers and guidance workers objective information which was of great help in understanding children's capacities and needs. This increased understanding made it possible to plan educational experiences with much more sensitive attention to individual differences than in the past. Like many breakthroughs, the test boom held out for some psychologists and educators more promise than it could fulfill, and there is at present a growing awareness of the limitations of testing.

The mental health movement: The insights into the dynamics of behavior stemming from the development of psychoanalysis as a method of studying behavior and as a technique for treating emotional disorders have spread far beyond the treatment rooms. Indeed, much of the technical terminology of psychoanalysis has become a part of our language.

In more recent years, the understanding of behavior has been deepened and extended by the contributions of a number of psychologists who emphasize the importance of the perceptions of the individual as the basis of his behavior. These understandings of psychologists have been extended by sociologists who have studied the influence of environmental factors on mental health. Consequently, techniques of child study — including standardized testing, case histories, anecdotal records, home visits, and sociometric methods, all of which have emerged during the last four decades — have contributed significantly to the guidance movement.

Vocational choice as an important aspect of life adjustment: A third major contributing force in the development of guidance has been the recognition of the importance of vocational choice in a highly specialized society. The technological developments which had their beginnings in the Industrial Revolution had brought about by the beginning of this century a degree of complexity and confusion in the world of work that made occupational choice and planning no longer a simple matter. Vocational guidance as a systematic, planned process came into being when Frank Parsons founded the Vocation Bureau in Boston in 1908.

Elementary Guidance—A Recent Development

The implementation of concepts and methods of guidance into actual programs in the educational system of the nation has, until recently, occurred primarily at the secondary school level. Martinson and Smallenburg, in their book on elementary school guidance, cite studies which indicate how recent is the introduction of organized programs of guidance at the elementary level. They state that one unpublished study ". . . made in 75 selected cities in the United States in 1928, showed that at that time only 16 cities reported a definite counseling system in their elementary schools. Only six cities reported counselors in individual schools."[1] In contrast, the same authors cite statistics which reveal that the number of elementary guidance personnel in the Los Angeles County, California, school system increased thirty-fold, from a total of 5 to 152 during the ten-year period from 1944 to 1954.[2]

To date, however, the development of elementary school guidance programs has been spasmodic throughout the country. In the great majority of elementary schools, guidance functions are performed by unassisted teachers who generally do not have free time for so much as a coffee break during the school day.

There is a growing recognition that the elementary teacher, however competent, cannot be all things to all students. Excellent classroom management and teaching are not enough. We have only to recall the dropout rate, the percentage of intellectually gifted children who are underachieving, and the failure of approximately one-third of draft-age men to meet minimum educational and physical requirements for service in our armed forces to realize the need for specialized help to assist the elementary classroom teacher in working with individual students and their parents.

Trends in Elementary Guidance: Preparation of Counselors

With increased awareness of the importance of specialized guidance help has come concern for the preparation of elementary school guidance counselors.

In a recent survey, McDougall and Reitan found that elementary school principals in three northwestern states favor the viewpoint that elementary guidance be concerned with specialized services to individual pupils rather than general curriculum guidance for all pupils."[3] These authors also found that the elementary principals favored the employment of full-time guidance personnel over a part-time guidance and part-time teaching arrangement. Over 70 per cent of the principals felt that counseling with individual students and consulting with parents were the more important jobs of the elementary school counselors and assigned less importance to the functions of identifying students with special talents and problems, assisting with the testing program, and interpreting the guidance program to the community.[4]

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[1] Martinson, Ruth, and Smallenburg, Harry, *Guidance in Elementary Schools.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1958. p. 12.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

Significantly, this study revealed a need for a better understanding between elementary principals and counselor educators concerning the content of professional preparation for elementary school counselors. For example, the principals seemed to place less emphasis on the need for an understanding of counseling theory and on the need for counseling practicum experiences than is reflected in most well-developed counselor education programs.[5] These seem to be important elements of preparation for the school counselor who is to carry out the counseling responsibilities that the principals indicated they want the counselors to assume.

Counselor education programs in the past have been designed almost exclusively to prepare secondary school and college counselors. During the last four years, over 9,000 secondary school counselors have been given additional preparation through short-term Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes under provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, and over 2,000 secondary school counselors have been prepared through academic-year programs of full-time study under this Act. Consequently, we have for the first time in the history of American education placed in secondary schools in anything approaching significant numbers personnel who are professionally prepared at a minimum level to provide individual counseling to secondary school youth and their parents.

Now there is a growing recognition on the part of the Congress that similar opportunities are needed to stimulate the preparation of elementary school counselors. At the time of this writing, several bills are being considered by committees in both the Senate and the House that propose to extend the Counseling and Guidance Training Institute authority in NDEA to provide for the preparation of elementary school counselors.

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[3] McDougall, William P., and Reitan, Henry M. "The Elementary Counselor as Perceived by Elementary Principals." *The Personnel and Guidance Journal* 42: 353; December 1963.

[4] *Idem.*

[5] *Idem.*

With the increased emphasis on the need for elementary school counselors, a number of institutions are making careful studies of the kind of program needed to prepare elementary school counselors. The anticipated legislation by the Congress to provide for the preparation of elementary school counselors will no doubt stimulate the development of elementary school counselor education programs in institutions throughout the country. In addition, the American Personnel and Guidance Association has established a Commission on Elementary School Guidance Counseling. The work of this Commission will involve the active participation of elementary school administrators and teachers as well as authorities in the field of elementary school guidance.

The Concept of Pupil Personnel Services

One of the significant trends in the field is a rapid shift away from the term "school guidance" in favor of the concept of pupil personnel services. This change in terminology represents much more than a mere semantic maneuver. It reflects a growing awareness that no one professional person can be all things to all people, but that rather there must be definition of function and an organized pattern of services in which each member of the staff has a clear understanding of his contribution.

In the past, there has been much debate regarding the role of the teacher in guidance as contrasted with that of the specialist. This debate has often seemed to be based on the assumption that there is an "either-or" issue involved, that either the teacher performs the functions of guidanc or the specialist does so. Within the past few years, there has been a significant shift from this sort of sterile and circular debate toward a keen awareness of the specialist in guidance — or the counselor, as this person is now called — as a professional resource person who backs up the teacher and helps him to perform the guidance part of his job better, just as a resource person in health or music or physical education does with respect to his area of competence.

The Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services, composed of thirteen national organizations,[6] has been awarded a $1.3 million grant to determine: 1) How specialists in pupil personnel services in elementary and secondary schools can more adequately, as a team, meet the needs of children and youth, and 2) how pupil personnel services as a major aspect of the school program can work most effectively with other school personnel in enhancing personal growth and educational opportunities for each student.[7] This five-year project will be conducted through programs of research and demonstration cooperatively developed by selected institutions of higher learning and public schools.

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[6] American Association of School Administrators, American Medical Association, American Nurses Association, American Personnel and Guidance Association, American Personnel and Guidance Association, American Psychological Association, American Speech and Hearing Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Council of Chief State School Officers, Department of Elementary School Principals, International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers, National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Association of Social Workers, National Education Association.

The Counselor as a Consultant

Another important trend in elementary guidance is the increasing utilization of the counselor as a consultant to teachers. In the beginnings of the guidance movement, the tendency was for the specialist to concentrate on studying and working with individual children referred to him by teachers and administrators and others – usually because of severe behavior disturbances or breaches of discipline. Thus, guidance tended to be crisis oriented, and the counselor's time was taken up almost exclusively with deviates, to the neglect of the majority of the school population.

The current trend is toward increasing use of the counselor as a consultant who confers with teachers in an effort to help them understand various kinds of development tasks with increasing skill and comfort in their own classrooms. Gerald Caplan, a psychiatrist on the staff of the Massachusetts Public Health Department and Associate Professor of Mental Health at Harvard University, has pioneered in exploring effective ways in which a specialist can best function as a consultant.[8] His approaches are making themselves felt in the consulting function of elementary school counselors. This trend seems particularly promising in the light of the continuing rapid increase in our school population, an increase which is clearly destined to outstrip any conceivable efforts to prepare counselors and other pupil personnel specialists. Thus, we are forced to discover more efficient ways of investing the time of those we can manage to educate for the profession.

Emphasis on Positive Aspects of Human Development

Perhaps the most important trend is the emerging emphasis on positive aspects of personal, social, and educational development. The movement is in the direction of the creative use of the elementary school counselor as a resource person to help the teacher in developing new experiences for children. What is envisaged here is not that the counselor should become a curriculum consultant in the tradtional sense. Rather, the prospect is that the counselor, as a result of his specialized knowledge of the factors that help children develop their creative potentials, can assist teachers in opening up new horizons for children that will enrich their lives.

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[7] Waetjen, Walter B. "Pupil Personnel Work: A Prospectus for Research." *The Personnel and Guidance Journal* 42: 97-98; September 1963.

[8] Caplan, Gerald. *Concepts of Mental Health and Consultation: Their Application in Public Health Social Work.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1959. 269 pp.

One project which exemplifies this approach is the well-publicized Higher Horizons Program which was begun in New York City in 1959. This program, in which counselors in 52 elementary schools and 13 junior high schools are involved, has as its goal, ". . . the raising of educational and vocational sights of *all* students – bright, average, or slow – so that each will reach his optimum potential."[9] It is a cultural enrichment program which involves remedial instruction, teacher training, and work with parents as well as with children. The intensive search for signs of potential talent begins with children in the third grade and continues through junior high school.

This growing emphasis on the positive and creative aspects of human development is part of a trend which is having a persuasive influence in all corners of our national life. The challenge to elementary school teachers, counselors, and administrators is clear.

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[9] Smith, Hyrum M., and Eckerson, Louise O. *Guidance for Children in Elementary Schools.* U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education, Bulletin 1963, No. 36. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963, p. 9.

A Childhood Theme: Developing and Emerging

index

Abrams, J. C., 195, 199
Allport, G. W., 131
Almy, M., 132, 136
Anderson, Loren, 184
Anderson, W. F., 165
Arbuckle, D. S., 101, 103, 131
Arnold, D., 331
Austin, M. C., 223, 229

Bachrach, P. B., 154
Baudler, L., 155
Bandura, A., 41, 44
Banham, K., 355
Barr, J., 340
Barret, H. O., 302, 307, 309
Barry, 103, 112
Beilin, H., 155
Bender, L. E., 175, 180
Bennett, M. E., 120
Bernard, H. W., 103, 112, 185, 340
Bice, H. V., 248
Biddulph, L. C., 223, 229
Blodgett, H. E., 245, 248
Bomey, M. E., 181, 184, 185
Breck, S. J. A., 223, 229
Bretsch, H. S., 223, 229
Bridge, K. L. M., 175, 180
Brown, D., 2, 223, 229
Bruce, P., 209, 211
Bruner, J. S., 131
Buford, 103
Byrne, R. H., 3, 36

Camp, N. H., 222, 229
Cannon, F. B., 3, 45
Carmichael, J., 219
Castaneda, A., 200, 202, 207, 211
Chall, J., 158, 185
Chenault, J., 331
Clark, C. A., 211
Conant, J. B., 31, 222, 229
Coplan, G., 366
Coppersmith, S. A., 44
Cottingham, H. F., 2, 13, 62, 64, 65, 68, 103, 112, 222, 229, 337, 338, 352
Counts, G. S., 155
Cox, F. N., 223, 229
Crites, D., 113
Crocker, E. C., 237, 248
Crow, A., 104, 112
Crow, L., 103, 112
Cutts, N., 340

Daley, M. F., 199
Davidson, H. H., 44
Davidson, H. M., 158, 185, 195
Davis, D. A., 102, 106, 112, 136
Dennis, C. E., 230
Denny, R., 131
Detjen, E. W., 340
Detjen, M. F., 340
Deutsch, M., 165
D'Evelyn, K., 252, 259, 301
De Vries, R. T., 64, 86
d'Heurle, A., 195, 199
Diebold, J., 131, 161, 165
Dipboye, W. J., 162, 165
Dixon, W. J., 155
Dorfman, E., 229
Driscoll, G., 340
Drucker, P. F., 131
Deeg, M. E., 155, 161, 165
Dyer, C. O., 45, 221, 222

Eckerson, L. O., 8, 12, 31, 64, 68, 91, 230, 328, 344, 347, 349, 367
Eddleman, R. R., 35
Ehrle, A. B., 131
Elkins, D., 181, 184
English, H. B., 185

Erickson, E. H., 131, 222, 230, 259
Evraiff, 341

Farroell, G., 103, 112
Feinberg, M., 181, 184, 229
Ferguson, D. G., 131
Ferris, R. R., 17, 21
Field, F., 68
Flanagan, J. C., 165
Flanders, N., 45
Forlano, G., 185
Form, W. H., 131
Foshay, A., 219
Freud, A., 249, 259
Friedricks, R. W., 175, 180
Frost, J., 12

Gade, E. M., 223, 229
Galler, E. H., 148, 155
Garrison, K. C., 301
Gerver, J. M., 158, 185, 195
Gesell, A., 296, 301
Ginott, H. G., 231, 233, 235
Ginsberg, E., 102, 106, 136, 139
Goertzen, S. M., 181, 184
Goldstein, H., 131
Gordon, I., 341
Greenberg, J. W., 158, 185, 195
Greenblatt, E. L., 288, 310, 311, 312, 313
Greene, J. E., 289, 296
Grell, L. A., 120
Grigg, A. E., 106, 112, 113
Gronlund, N. E., 180, 181
Grossman, B., 223, 229
Gunn, B., 102, 121, 139

Hadley, R. B., 107, 112
Halsey, A. H., 139
Hatch, R. N., 104, 109, 112, 113, 340
Hatt, A. H., 139, 140, 141, 147
Hefferman, H., 34, 219, 259
Hill, G. E., 1, 5, 12, 56, 62, 65, 68, 69, 96, 97, 120, 320, 325, 326, 327, 328, 331, 349, 352
Himmelweit, H. T., 139, 147
Hobbs, N., 131
Hogan, N., 102, 106, 112, 136
Holland, J. L., 107, 112
Hopkins, T.W., 243, 248
Hoppock, R., 104, 112
Hunt, J. McV., 223, 229
Hout, R., 45
Hurlock, E. B., 296, 301

Inskeep, J., 288, 310
Isaacs, S., 175, 180

James, C. E., 103, 340
Jenkins, D., 34
Jennings, H. H., 181, 185
Jersild, A. T., 42, 45, 132, 136, 296, 301
Johnson, 341
Johnson, W., 103
Johnson, W. F., 112
Jones, A., 12

Kaback, G. R., 101, 114, 120, 121, 126, 131
Kabeck, C., 66
Kavruck, S., 319, 333
Kaye, J., 110, 112, 120
Kayer, R. M., 289, 296
Kinnane, J. F., 113
Koeppe, R. P., 17, 20, 21
Kooker, E., 200, 202, 203, 205, 207, 209, 211
Koplitz, E. D., vi
Kourtz, G.T., 110, 113, 287, 289, 340
Kourtz, N., 110, 113, 287, 289, 340
Kranzler, G. D., 45, 221, 222, 230, 287, 301
Kupers, C. J., 41, 44
Kurtz, J. J., 307, 309

Landry, E., 237
Langdon, G., 259
Lansing, J. B., 296
Leibman, O. B., 195, 199
Leonard, E., 250, 259
Levitt, E. E., 201, 211
Levy, W. V., 107, 112
Lifton, W.M., 110, 113, 120, 122, 131, 158
Linquist, E. F., 211, 310
Lippitt, R., 230
Lipset, S. M., 155
Lipsett, L., 106, 113
Lippmann, H. S., 45
Loban, W. A., 223, 229
Long, E., 175
Lloyd-Jones, E., 341
Lang, G., 44

Lorber, N. M., 158, 181
Lyle, W. H., 201, 211

Malm, F. T., 155
Martinson, R., 12, 301
Massey, F. J., 155
Mayer, R. G., 2, 40, 45, 221, 222
Mathewson, R. H., 12, 113
Matlin, A., 159, 195
McCandless, E., 45, 202, 207, 211
McCreary, W. H., 261
McCrow, L.W., 223, 229
McCuen, J. T., 302, 310, 355
McDougall, W. P., 62, 76, 363
McKeller, R., 68, 344, 345, 346, 347, 349
Meeks, A., 12, 229, 338, 348, 355
Mellinger, J. C., 195, 199
Mendelsohn, F. A., 159, 195
Meredith, C. W., 219
Michael, M., 131
Miles, L., 259
Miller, C., 65, 68, 106
Miller, J. S., 113
Monnens, L. P., 102, 121, 131
Moustakas, C. E., 232, 235
Morman, R. R., 131
Morse, W., 34
Munger, P., 45, 221, 229, 288, 301
Menninger, W. C., 259
Miller, G., 261
Miller, L., 328
Morrow, W. R., 307, 310
Muuss, R. E., 159, 199, 200, 211

Nelson, R. C., 3, 49, 220, 230
Nitzschke, D. F., 12, 68, 96, 97, 120, 319, 320, 328, 331, 352
Norman, R. D., 195, 199
Norris, W., 104, 113, 120
North, 139, 140, 141
Nortinson, 341
Nosow, S., 131

O'Hara, R. P., 106, 113
Ohlsen,M. M., 45, 223, 230
Ojemann, R. H., 201, 211
Olechowski, N., 102, 132
Oppenheim, A. N., 139, 147
Oppenlander, L., 45

Pable, M. W., 113
Palermo, D. S., 200, 202, 211
Patouoillet, R., 68, 94, 95
Perkins, F. T., 219
Perrodin, A. F., 211
Peters, H., 103, 112
Peterson, 341
Paterson, D. G., 155, 161, 165
Peterson, R. L., 3, 45
Piaget, J., 139, 148, 175, 180
Piel, G., 132
Pitner, R., 296, 301
Poling, G. E., 3, 54
Polasky, N., 230
Polmantier, P. C., 328
Powell, J., 180
Pruett, R. F., 2
Prescott, 341
Purkey, E., 223, 230

Quilling, B., 12

Randall, K. G., 46
Raines, B., 319, 328
Redl, F., 230
Rehage, K. J., 222, 230
Reisman, D., 131
Reitan, H. M., 62, 76, 363
Rettig, S., 175, 180
Riccio, A. C., 337, 351
Rice, J. P., 288, 296
Roe, A., 106, 113, 120, 132, 136
Rogers, C. R., 60, 131, 230
Rogers, V. R., 175
Ross, L., 328
Rowland, M., 288, 310
Ruderman, L. D., 180

Schmidt, L. D., 328
Schmidt, R., 184
Segel, S. J., 107, 113, 230
Semler, I. J., 199
Shaw, M. C., 302, 309, 310, 355
Siegel, S., 310
Siegelman, M., 121
Sievers, F. L., 222, 230
Simeon, N. F., 261
Simmons, D. D., 102, 121, 148
Small, L., 113
Smallenburg, H. W., 12, 68, 341
Smart, E. C., 243, 248
Smith, G., 223, 230
Smith, H. M., 8, 12, 31, 64, 68, 91, 230, 328, 344, 347, 349, 367
Smith, L. M., 230

Smith, M., 184
Solomon, R. L., 223, 229
Sorokin, P., 175, 180
Staines, J. W., 45
Steckle, L., 301
Stefflre, 103, 162, 165
Stegeman, W., 259
Stendler, C. B., 148
Stephenson, R. M., 155
Stewart, L. H., 148
Stewart, L., 121
Stiles, F. S., 211
Stout, I., 259
Strang, R., 32, 65, 66, 68
Stripling, R. O., 328, 338, 361
Strouf, J., 102, 106, 112, 136
Super, D., 107, 113, 132, 136
Swenson, E., 307, 310
Switzer, D. K., 106, 113

Teigland, J., 230, 287, 302
Telschow, E. F., 46
Tennyson, W.W., 102, 121, 131
Thompson, G. G., 229
Thurston, J. R., 237, 248
Tiedeman, P., 65, 68
Tolbert, J. W., 223, 229
Trow, W. C., 34, 96
Triddenham, R. D., 181, 185
Tuddenham, R. D., 181, 185
Tyler, L., 32, 121, 195, 199

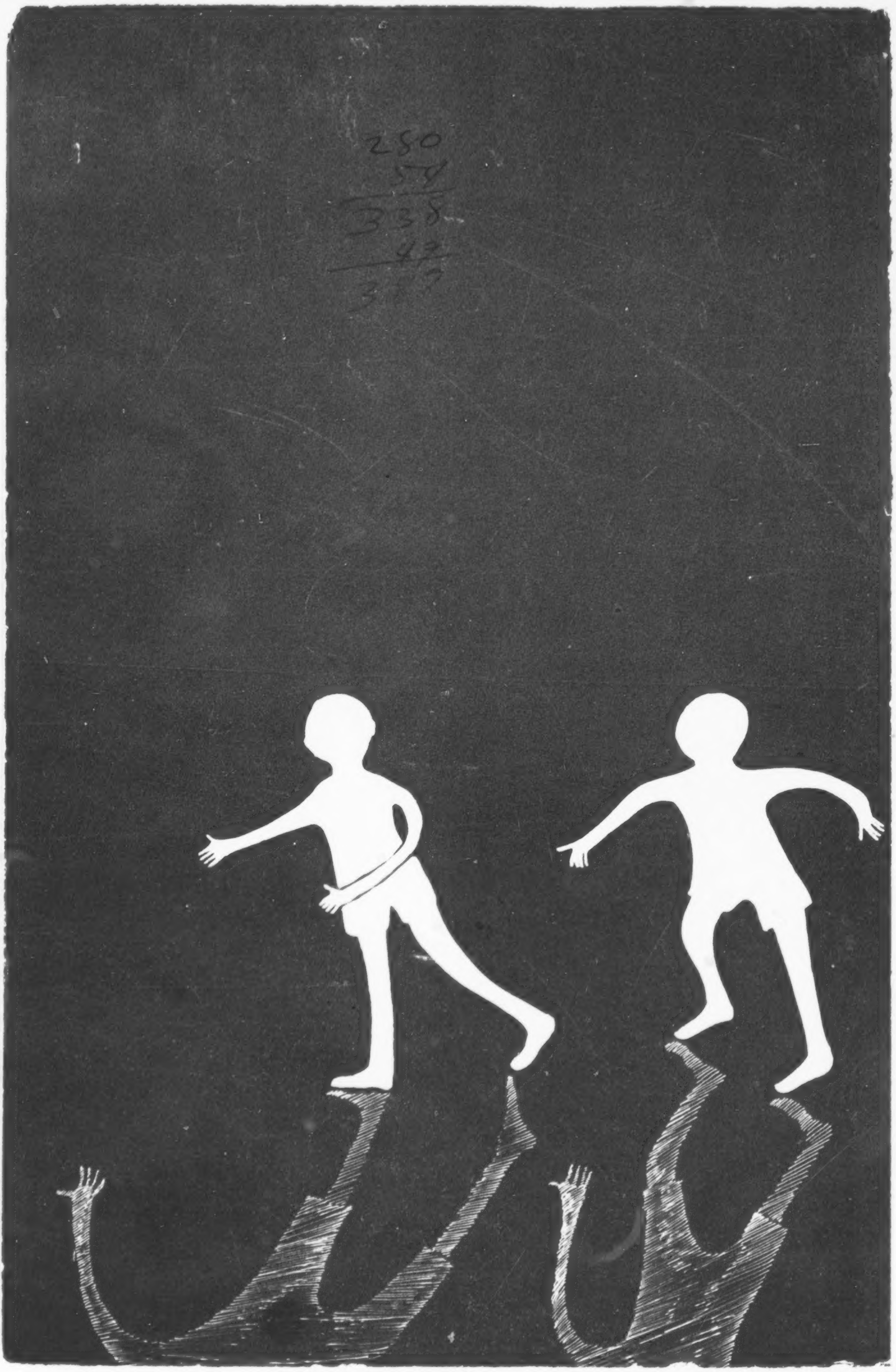
Utton, A. C., 106, 113

Van Deman, D., 259
Van Hoose, W. H., 12

Wann, K., 219
Watson, D., 2, 31, 65, 68
Weiking, M., 43
Weinstein, E. A., 148, 155
Welch, M. K., 155
Wellington, J. A., 102, 132
Wetch, M. K., 155
Wheelis, A., 132
White, R. C., 132
Whiteside, M. F., 201, 211
Willey, R. D., 103, 113, 340
Williams, M. F., 223, 230
Wills, C., 259
Wilson, J. A. R., 195, 199
Wilson, R. C., 307, 310
Winkler, R., 230, 287, 301
Wolfbein, S. L., 222, 230
Wrenn, C. G., 68, 103, 113, 132
Wright, B., 180
Wrighter, J., 223, 229
Wrightstone, J.W., 185

Young, R. D., 45, 106, 113

Zak, A. P., 261
Zeran, F. R., 103, 104, 112, 113, 340



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